

BIBLIOTHECA HISTORICA ROMANIAE  
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CONSTANTIN C. GIURESCU

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*A History  
of the  
Romanian Forest*

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EDITURA ACADEMIEI  
REPUBLICII SOCIALISTE ROMÂNIA

## A HISTORY OF THE ROMANIAN FOREST



This is the concise version of *Istoria pădurii românești din cele mai vechi timpuri până astăzi*,  
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BIBLIOTHECA HISTORICA ROMANIAE  
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CONSTANTIN C. GIURESCU

# A HISTORY OF THE ROMANIAN FOREST

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## FOREWORD TO THE ROMANIAN EDITION

*Much has been written, and in the most different ways, about the forests of the Carpatho-Danubian area, proof of which are the volumes of bibliography which comprise the titles of the various studies, researches and articles. But however strange it may seem, there is no comprehensive historical survey of Romanian forests showing their development from the earliest times to date, the part they have played in the life of the Romanian people — more particularly during the period of their ethnogenesis and of the battles fought in order to preserve the state —, the connection between forests and place-names on the Carpatho-Danubian territory, their influence on personal names, the economic and ecological importance of forests, and the manner in which they have been and continue to be reflected in literature, including folk literature, as well as in Romanian art.*

*I have made bold to try my hand at such a survey, well aware of the complexity and the difficulties involved in a first work of this kind. I believe the survey to be necessary not only in order to sum up whatever is known about forests, but also in order to set forth the facets that have not been very thoroughly inquired into and to point out the questions to which no satisfactory answer has as yet been given. Those that will write after me will no doubt improve on my work.*

*I am undertaking this survey prompted by my love for forests generally and for Romanian forests in particular. The hours I have spent in the forest are among the happy ones of my life. I have seen the forest in all seasons and in all its aspects; I have seen it in spring — when it is still dark, though the early flowers — sweet violets, small daisies and anemones already peep out vying with the golden blossoms of the cornelian cherry. I have seen it in all its summer glory, when a deciduous forest displays all possible shades of green and when raspber-*

ries and wild strawberries are ripening. I have been thrilled by the harmonious colours of the woods in autumn — from the rusty red of the oaks to the bright red of wild cherry-trees. And I have seen it in winter when it roars wildly under the blasts of the north wind. On the newly fallen snow red foxes roused from their lair shoot off, like flames, while multi-coloured goldfinches pecked busily at the seeds scattered by some tall thistles. I have seen fir woods stern and stately; beech woods with the light filtering through their branches, and birch forests so graceful and cheery. And more than once I have admired the variety, loveliness and stored wealth of our hospitable forests, where man truly feels at home, comparing them with the silent, mournful forests of the north and the “green hell” of equatorial forests. A blessing on our forests which have been like sworn brothers to us, sheltering us, helping us to live and to defend ourselves. But in return, we have failed to spare them as we should have done for their beauty and the wealth they hold in store, and for their boundless source of good health. We have offended greatly and repeatedly. A look at the gullied hills and mountains everywhere will bring home our guilt. Recently, we have started making reparation, but wounds are slow to heal and a long time is required to complete the task.

I return thanks to all those who have assisted me to achieve this work. To the present and past management of the Ministry of Forest Economy and Building Materials and to the General State Inspectorate of Sylviculture. To the friends and acquaintances who have proved their interest in this work by providing information, photos and maps or by making suggestions. I cannot but quote the name of the late Emil Pop, Member of the Academy, of I. Dumitriu-Tătăranu, Valeriu Dinu and Al. Burnea, of Ionel Pop and C. Rosetti-Bălănescu, great hunters and men of letters, and of such friends as C. Motaș, V. Drăguș, Mihai Guboglu and Adrian Ghinescu. Illustrations have graciously been made available by the management of the Bucharest Village Museum, and of the museums of Cluj-Napoca, Sibiu, Sighet, and Herești. Thanks are due to Gheorghe Focșa, Viorica Pascu, Cornel Irimie, Traian Nistor and Tancred Bănățeanu, and to the late ambassador Nicolae Vancea. I assure them all of my gratitude, and will keep a grateful and devout recollection of those who have departed from among us. At the same time I wholeheartedly thank the Ceres Publishing House for its contribution to the get up of the present work.

CONSTANTIN G. GIURESCU



## NOTE TO THE ENGLISH EDITION

*The present volume is the translation of a concise version of the book by the same title issued by "Ceres" Publishing House in 1976. The shortened edition is due to Dinu C. Giurescu. The editor takes this opportunity to extend his sincerest thanks to Editura Academiei and its director, Constantin Busuioceanu, to the head of the History Department, Niculina Florea, to the head of the English Department, Sorana Georgescu-Gorjan, as well as to Eugenia Farca, the translator of the volume, all of whom have contributed to the publication of this work.*

DINU C. GIURESCU

January 1980

## THE CARPATHO-DANUBIAN FORESTS IN PREHISTORIC TIMES IN DACIA AND IN ROMAN DACIA

*In ancient times Carpatho-Danubian forests were far more extensive.*

Looking at our forest-clad mountains, we are brought to think of eternity, of the thousands of generations which beheld them and rejoiced in their splendour. There they stood when Wallachia and Moldavia were founded, when Trajan with his legions marched into the very heart of Dacia, when our forebears in the stone age created the first elements of civilization.

What do we know about the forests of the Carpatho-Danubian area in the dim prehistoric ages, and later in the days of Dacia and of Roman Dacia? There is one thing we know for certain: they were far more extensive than they are today, covering not only the mountains, but also the hills and a great part of the plain. Transylvania, whose very name suggests the extensive forests that separated it from the vast Danube and Tisa plains; Moldavia whose hills were covered by giant forests that rolled down to the mouths of the rivers Siret and Prut; Wallachia where, the Bărăgan and the Burnaz steppes excepted, one could walk through woods from the mountains to the Danube — were all woodland, with forests stretching everywhere. The population was sparse and the forests endless. The late Emil Pop, who was well versed in matters pertaining to forests, stated that in former days, about 60—70 per cent of the areas inhabited by Romanians must have been covered with forests<sup>1</sup>. In my opinion 70 per cent seems closer to the truth.

Most of the Carpatho-Danubian expanse — even the edges of the two "Getian steppes," viz, the present-day Bărăgan and the Bugeac — has always been well suited for forestry: when allowed to develop, trees and even shrubs reach an impressive age and size. In 1956, at Ghergani, north-west of Bucharest, a fearful storm brought down an 800-year-old oak: it had stood there a century

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<sup>1</sup> Pop, *Forests*, p. 17.

and a half before the foundation of the Wallachian state<sup>2</sup>. It was out of a single stately oak that the monastery described as the "One-log" Monastery in Vâlcea county was built; hence its name (*Mănăstirea Dintr-un lemn*)<sup>3</sup>. At Vizantea, in Vrancea county, local people speak of a thick oak as being "Stephen the Great's oak." At Nereaz, nor far from Tismana in Gorj county, a sweet chestnut tree exceeds six metres in girth<sup>4</sup>. "The King of Fir-trees" at Tihuța (Bistrița-Năsăud county) — actually a spruce more than two hundred years old — vies with the fir-tree rising in the valley of the Arțaș brook near Cheia (Prahova county), which is 62 m high and 2.50 m in diameter<sup>5</sup>. The diameter of 2.50 m is also ascribed to a number of oaks, firs and beeches in the official work *Notice sur la Roumanie* published in 1867. The elm found in the courtyard of Vasile Gavrilescu of the Pîrîul Morii Street at Cîmpulung Moldovenesc is over 700 years old, which is extremely rare for this species<sup>6</sup>.

In Bucharest there are quite a few century-old oaks and ashes. In the courtyard of the Cardens' House in the Cîsmigiu Park, two filberts exceed ten metres<sup>7</sup>. In the Comarova forest (Constanța county) along the seashore, an oak-tree is 26 metres high and its trunk is 70 cm in diameter<sup>8</sup>. Even on the edges of the two aforementioned steppes there are isolated forests such as the Chirana forest in Ialomița county, which harbours oaks, cornelian cherries and other varieties of trees<sup>9</sup>, and the oak forest at Frățilești, in the same county, mention of which was made during the 1768—1774 war<sup>10</sup>. Protective forest belts and acacias — the oaks of the steppe — thrive in any part of the steppe.

In prehistoric times, as well as throughout history, forests were of great assistance to the population, providing as they did the necessary food: first of all game. According to a Romanian saying "the forest is both home and food for game." The hunted animals — the aurochs, bison, bear, wild boar, deer, roe and hare —

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<sup>2</sup> G. Potra, *The Oak-tree of Ghergani*, in "Flacăra" of April 1st, 1957; Giurescu, *History of Bucharest*, p. 23.

<sup>3</sup> An Austrian report dated December 14th 1727, sent from Oltenia to the War Council of Vienna, mentions this fact among other information (Constantin Giurescu, *Material for the History of Oltenia under Austrian Rule*, p. 216).

<sup>4</sup> See "România Liberă" of October 15th, 1972, p. 5.

<sup>5</sup> See "România Liberă" of June 19th, 1973, p. 5.

<sup>6</sup> See "România Liberă" of February 17th, 1973, p. 5.

<sup>7</sup> Giurescu, *History of Bucharest*, p. 23.

<sup>8</sup> See "România Liberă" of August 31st, 1972, p. 5.

<sup>9</sup> Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 44.

<sup>10</sup> See *Mémoires*, p. 141.

provided meat as well as furs, hides and skins for clothing and foot-wear. And then there were forest fruit : hazel nuts, walnuts and beech-nuts (which also yield oil), wild strawberries, raspberries, blackberries bilberries and hips. Even crab-apples and wild pears were edible if kept long enough. Finally, all sorts of mushrooms — *Boletus edulis*, *Amanita caesarea*, *Armillaria mellea*, *Gyromitra esculenta*, *Lactarius volenus* — as well as edible plants — ramson whose leaves are so tasty in spring, *Rumex crispus*, dandelion, *Chenopodium album*, amaranth, pilewort— and also roots and seeds — caraway, wild garlic. Let us also mention the fish in the mountain brooks : trout, grayling, huchen<sup>11</sup>, bullhead, minnow, loach, etc.

In order to fully realize the importance of forests for the ancient inhabitants of our land, as well as for the inhabitants of any lands in prehistoric times, to the food, skins and furs provided by forest areas, we should also add wood, out of which huts and houses were made. It also served as fuel — mention should also be made here of the tinder fungus — and as material for various tools, rafts and boats. Tree trunks hollowed out by means of an axe or of fire were used as such as can be seen at the Naval Museum in Constanța and also to this day on a number of ponds and backwaters<sup>12</sup>.

Prehistoric men knew of the fire obtained when trees were set ablaze by lightning, and also made fire themselves, the forest again providing the material thereto, by rubbing together — for long and quickly — two dry pieces of wood of various hardness. This is the “living fire,” which Romanian shepherds still produced at the beginning of this century and which they believed to have some magic properties<sup>13</sup>.

In 75 — 74 B.C., Caius Scribonius Curio, Proconsul of Macedonia, with his army, reached the Danube facing the Banat — or as other scholars would have it, facing Oltenia or the Teleorman county — but did not venture to cross the river, fearing “the darkness of the woods.” According to the ancient historian Florus : *Curio Dacia tenus venit, sed tenebras saltuum expavit*<sup>14</sup>. Cornelius Fuscus, another Roman general, did embark upon the venture in 87, at the time of

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<sup>11</sup> According to Dionisie Fotino (*Dacia*, p. 161—162), huchens could be found in the Wallachian rivers up to the early 19th century.

<sup>12</sup> Such dugouts or monoxyles were used by Alexander of Macedon when he crossed the Danube with his army (See Arrian in *Sources*, p. 585). The soldiers of Vlad Dracul also used them in 1445, as pointed out by the Frenchman Walerand de Wawrin (Bulletin of Romania's Historical Commission, vol. VI, 1927, p. 109).

<sup>13</sup> Moroianu — Ștefan, *Living Fire*.

<sup>14</sup> Florus, in *Sources*, p. 522—523.



Emperor Domitian, but paid dearly for his audacity : Decebalus' army came upon him unexpectedly in the thick of the forest and during the battle Fuscus lost his whole army and his life<sup>15</sup>. During the wars waged by Trajan and Decebalus in A.D. 101—102 and 105—106, the Dacian king had the forests for his allies : Trajan's Column in Rome shows Dacians fighting amidst forest land<sup>16</sup>. The ancient historian Cassius Dio, who gives a circumstantial account of the wars between Dacians and Romans, states that following heavy fighting in the Banat, Decebalus had the trees of a young forest cut to a man's height and camouflaged them with Dacian clothing and weapons. Romans were misled to believe that he had another army in the rear<sup>17</sup>.

It is difficult to imagine what area was covered by forests two thousand years ago. On the site of present-day Bucharest were once extensive forests that spread northwards to beyond Ploiești, including what was to be the Vlășia forest and joining the woods of the hills and farther off those of the mountains. In the south, they reached the Danube in an unbroken expanse, joining the riverside woods. Things were not different in the Teleorman area, whose name means "mad forest" in the Cuman language. "Deliorman" in the south of Dobrudja has the same meaning in Osmanli Turkish. Where the far-famed Teleorman woods once spread there are now cornfields, with a clump of trees here and there, or a solitary oak recalling the state of things in the past. Central and eastern Banat was covered with forests. It was only in the west that spread the plain and the ponds caused by the overflowing of the Tisa and the Timiș. The Romans designated the ponds by the name of *album*. Maramureș was wholly wooded and until the 13th century its woods were difficult of access, forming a natural stronghold<sup>18</sup>. Various foreign writers compare both Transylvania and Moldavia to strongholds or citadels, on account of their impenetrable forests. Thus, in the 16th century Veranesics, a traveller, stated that Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent, the well-known conqueror, fought shy of occupying the Romanian countries "as they were well defended by the sheerest mountains and by forests most difficult to plod through..."<sup>19</sup>. Again, an anonymous traveller described Moldavia in 1587 as a country "covered with hills and forests, and

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<sup>15</sup> Martial, in *Sources*, p. 437 ; Cassius Dio, in *Sources*, p. 683.

<sup>16</sup> See reliefs 33, 53 (Decebalus' death near a tree), 110, 113, 116, 117.

<sup>17</sup> *Sources*, p. 687.

<sup>18</sup> Popa, *Maramureș*, p. 46.

<sup>19</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, I, p. 418.



being thus fortified by nature, able to fend off the invasions and plundering raids of the Tartars."<sup>20</sup> In Dobrudja also, the woods along the Danube and the widespread forest in the north offered good shelter and many possibilities of defence.

Is there any difference between the forests of Dacian and Daco-Roman times and the forests of today as regards the component species of trees? On the whole, the species are the same, whether evergreen, deciduous or wild varieties of fruit-trees<sup>21</sup>. There are, however, a number of differences. In Dobrudja, for example, there grew a variety of pine whose wood was used for torches by the inhabitants of the town of Histria, as recorded in the epigraph which confirms the boundaries and the rights of the town<sup>22</sup>. Today, there is no such variety of pine extant. Furthermore, the yew, a beautiful tree with heavy, highly resistant red wood, is ever more seldom met with in our forests. One reason of it is that shepherds used to fell such trees whenever they came across them as their leaves are poisonous for sheep and horses. Beeches also grew in districts other than those where they are met with today. There are only relics of them left at Lucavița<sup>23</sup> in northern Dobrudja and at Snagov<sup>24</sup> in the Wallachian plain. On the other hand, new varieties of trees have been introduced. The acacia which has a Turkish name in Romanian (*salcîm*) was introduced in the 18th century; the quick-growing Euramerican poplar as well as the Canadian maple and the red oak have been planted in modern times.

A number of words of Dacian origin related to forests have been preserved in Romanian; to begin with, generic terms such as *copac* (tree), *codru* (high forest) and *bunget*<sup>25</sup> (large thick forest). A comparison with the Albanian *bunk* (oak) points to the Dacian origin of *bunget*<sup>26</sup>. (As is known, Albanian is derived from Illyrian, which in its turn is related to Thracian and consequently to Dacian). It should be emphasized that the Dacian-derived term for high forest (*codru*) designates extensive forests such as those in northern

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<sup>20</sup> *Ibidem*, III, p. 200.

<sup>21</sup> Dumitriu-Tătăranu et al., *Forest Trees*, p. 9.

<sup>22</sup> A.A.R.M.S.I., s. 2, XXXVIII (1915–1916), p. 556–593.

<sup>23</sup> I. Dumitriu-Tătăranu and Suzana Ocskay, *Systematic Position and Origin of the Beeches of Luncavița, Northern Dobrudja*, in "Revista Pădurilor", 1–2, 1952, p. 25–31.

<sup>24</sup> V. Petrescu, *The Beeches in the Snagov Forest and their Spontaneous Origin*, in "Revista Pădurilor", XXXIX (1927), 8, p. 431–439.

<sup>25</sup> Cicerone Poghirc, *Sur les éléments de substrat du roumain*, in "Dacoromania," Jahrbuch für ostliche Latinität, I (1973), p. 199–201; I. I. Russu, *Die autochtonen Elemente im Wortschatz der rumänischen Dialekte*, *ibidem*, p. 192–194.

<sup>26</sup> Jordan, *Romanian Toponymy*, p. 69, and 425; Russu, *Thracio-Dacian*, p. 204.

Dobrudja, in the north-western area of Sătmăr in the Făget mountains<sup>27</sup> and in Moldavia. When on 3 April 1412 Alexander the Good bestowed on "his true and faithful servant" Coman the site for a village, the boundaries of the site were described as follows: "from the well, straight on to the high forest... to the Bașeu brook and from the White Brook upwards to the high forest."<sup>28</sup> This is the high forest of the former Dorohoi county not far from the village of Comănești. Chronicler Ion Neculce also related that one of Prince Radu Mihnea's daughters eloped with her lover from the Hirlău citadel and hid "in the high forest." And Prince Radu's men "found her in the thick of the high forest, at a well that was called the Stag's Well, by the clay bridge."<sup>29</sup> The chronicler had in mind the great Hirlău forest that spread over dozens of kilometres.

It is also from Dacian that the word *brad* (fir) is derived, the Albanian word for it being *breth*. It is not fortuitous that Romanians associate the fir with various events of importance in man's life: marriage (a decorated fir-tree is carried in the wedding procession or is planted in front of the house where the couple are to live); housebuilding (a fir-tree is set on the roof when the house has been completed); death (a decorated fir-tree is carried in the funeral procession). The Romanian term for durmast, *gorun*, is also derived from Dacian. And so are the words *curpen* (vine-shoot), *mugure* (bud, *muguli* in Albanian) and *sîmbure* (fruit-stone, *thumbule* in Albanian). The number of Dacian terms related to the forest is fairly appreciable, as compared to the total number of words preserved from the language of our ancestors — about a hundred and sixty<sup>30</sup>.

Valuable data on Dacian houses are provided by Trajan's Column. The houses of beams carved on the monument are still built in mountain regions, though the practice is going out nowadays. The roofs are gabled and probably shingled. The fences made up of pointed boards are similar to those that could be seen in the Chiojdu Mare and Chiojdu Mic villages (Prahova and Buzău counties) in the early decades of our century, and can still be seen in various mountain districts today<sup>31</sup>.

A great many wooden tools, vessels and pieces of furniture that have been in use in peasant homes for two thousand years —

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<sup>27</sup> I. Iurașciuc, *An Age-old Fulling Technique*, in "Cibinium," 1967—1978, p. 179.

<sup>28</sup> Costăchescu, *Moldavian Documents*, p. 97.

<sup>29</sup> Neculce, *Chronicle of Moldavia*, p. 16.

<sup>30</sup> Cicerone Poghir, *loc. cit.*

<sup>31</sup> See the houses and boards on Trajan's Column, reliefs I, XIX, XLIII, LIV, LVI, LVII, LIX, LXIII.

some of them continuing in use at present while others can be viewed only in the ethnography museums of the country — are inherited from the Dacians. Wooden pitch forks and rakes, spindles, reeling devices, salt caddies, stools and low round tables, transversal bars to fasten doors (actually the best of bolts), platters, firkins and churns, yokes and yoke bolts, and many other such things were made of the timber felled in the forests, the wood used being of various varieties, hard or soft, dense or light, according to requirements.

The Latin heritage in the vocabulary is far richer than the Dacian one. The names of many forest trees are of Latin-origin: *fag* (beech) from *fagus*; *frasin* (ash) from *fraxinus*; *ulm* (elm) from *ulmus*; *corn* (cornelian cherry) from *cornus*; *tei* (lime-tree) from *tilia*; *plop* (poplar) from *populus*, *arin/anin* (alder-tree) from *alnus*; *tufan* (pubescent oak) from *tufa*; *carpen* (hornbeam) from *carpinus*; *cer* (Turkey oak) from *cerrus*; *arțar* (maple) from *arciaricus*, derived from *acer*; *sînger* (dogwood) derived from *a sîngera* (to bleed) — *sanguinare*; *salcie* (willow) from *salix*, *salcis*; *sorb* (wild service tree) from *sorbus*; *soc* (common elder) from *sambucus*; *zadă* (larch) from *daeda* <sup>32</sup>.

The generic term for forest — *pădure* in Romanian — raises a special problem. As linguists will have it, it is derived from *paludem* (the accusative of *palus* — *paludis* (marsh) through metathesis <sup>33</sup>. But why should this term so different from *forest* have been chosen to express the notion of forest? Was it because trees (willows and poplars) occasionally grow on the edge of ponds? And why wasn't the usual term, *sylva*, adopted, especially as in Romanian the word *sălbatic* (wild) is derived from *sylvaticus*? Is it not possible for the term *pădure* to have a different etymology? Could it be a Dacian heritage, like *brad*, *copac*, *gorun*, *codru*, *bunget*? There are other terms of Dacian origin also ending in *-re*: *mazăre* (peas), *strugure* (grape), *mugure* (bud), *viezure* (badger), *Dunăre* (Danube), though the stress falls on the first syllable <sup>34</sup>.

Apart from the names of trees, as shown above, the following component parts of a tree are also of Latin origin: *rădăcină* (root) from *radix*, *radicis*; *trunchi* (trunk) from *trunculus*; *scoarță* (bark) from *scortea*; *ramură* (branch) from *ramus*; *foaie* (leaf) from *folia*; *floare* (flower) from *flos*, *floris*; *fruct* (fruit) from *fructus*; *sămînță* (seed) from *sementia*; *putregai* (rot) derived from *putridus*; *burete*

<sup>32</sup> See *D.M.R.L.*, *sub voce*.

<sup>33</sup> See *D.M.R.L.*, under *pădure*.

<sup>34</sup> See Russu, *Thraco-Dacian*, p. 16.



(mushroom) from *boletis* (= *boletus*); *cucuruz* (fir cone) cf. *cocoriza* in Sardinian.

Collective nouns used to designate forests are formed with the suffix *-et*, being of Latin origin (*etum*): *făget* (beech forest), cf. *făgetum*; *ulmet* (elm forest)<sup>35</sup>; *brădet* (fir forest — Dacian root and Latin suffix, a typical example of the mingling of Dacian and Latin); *frăsinet* (ash forest) from *fraxinetum*<sup>36</sup>; *socet* (elder forest)<sup>37</sup>; *sorbet* (forest of wild service trees)<sup>38</sup>; *cornet* (cornel grove) from *cornetum*<sup>39</sup>. Other collective nouns to be cited are *călinet* (a guelder rose grove or a clump of guelder roses); *mălinet* (grove of bird cherry trees); and *sălcet* (willow wood). We should furthermore recall the term *nucet*<sup>40</sup> (walnut tree grove), also a frequent place name throughout the Romanian-inhabited area.

The frequent occurrence of wild fruit trees — crab-apple and wild pear-, plum-, cherry- and service-trees — is specific of Romanian forests. Not infrequently, a big, round-crowned crab tree laden with numberless small red or yellow apples, can be seen in the autumn in the middle of a deciduous forest, as for example in the Sușița valley between Cimpuri and Soveja. It is a surprising and most delightful sight, just like the sight of a cornelian cherry in blossom in the spring — a patch of bright yellow amidst dark, leafless trees — or the sight of wild cherry-trees with leaves of flaming red, in the autumn, like those to be seen at Șarba, at the

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<sup>35</sup> *Ulmelum* was the name of a Roman castrum and of a Roman settlement in Dobruja, where the village of Pantelimonul de Sus rises today in the Tulcea county. See V. Pârvan, *The Ulmetum Citadel*, in A.A.R.M.S.I., s. 2, vol. XXXV (1912), p. 497—610; vol. XXXVI (1913-1914), p. 245—328 and 329—420; vol. XXXVII (1914—1915), p. 265—304.

<sup>36</sup> A village "Frăsinetul de cimpie" is mentioned in 1537 (*D.I.R.*, B, XVI, II, p. 226—227).

<sup>37</sup> In 1835, there was a village named Socetu with 61 homesteads in the Dimbovița county (Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 224).

<sup>38</sup> A place-name, Sorbet, in what was formerly the Vlașca county, See Iordan, *op. cit.*, p. 428.

<sup>39</sup> The Cornetu monastery in the Vilcea county was named after the cornel-tree wood standing nearby. The diminutive of *cornel*, *cornățel*, meaning a cornel-tree copse, is a frequent toponym throughout the Romanian territory, including *Cornățel*, on the River Mostiștea (Ilfov county), which was a town in the days of Matei Basarab (Giurescu, *Cornățelul*).

<sup>40</sup> Two old Wallachian monasteries were thus named — one in the Dimbovița county and the other in the Old valley. The latter, which is the foundation of Mîrcea the Old, changed its name to Cozia. See Giurescu, *Nucetul*, in "Mitropolia Olteniei," XIII (1961), 1—4, p. 38—49.

foot of Odobesti Hill. The numerous wild fruit trees — occasionally grafted by a benevolent soul — account for the large number of place-names derived therefrom<sup>41</sup>, such as *Periş* (pear-tree grove); *Perişor*, and *Peret*; *Meriş* (apple-tree grove) or *Scoruget* (service-tree forest)<sup>42</sup>.

We should conclude to a powerful, predominantly Latin heritage in the terminology related to forests, the same as in that related to agriculture, vine-growing and stock breeding<sup>43</sup>.

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<sup>41</sup> See such place names in Iordan, *op. cit.*, p. 427.

<sup>42</sup> It was in the Scoruget forest that Horea and Cloşca, the leaders of the revolutionary movement of the late 18th century in Transylvania, took shelter at the end of the autumn of 1784, intending to resume action in the spring.

<sup>43</sup> With reference to the latter domains, see Const. C. Giurescu and Dinu C. Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, Bucharest, 1971, p. 141–144.



## FORESTS DURING THE MIGRATION PERIOD

*Withdrawal into the forests, not into the mountains.*

When the Roman administration and army withdrew from Dacia, a new period began in the life of the Daco-Romans. Most of them, that is the peasants — ploughmen, shepherds and stock breeders — and the poor and middle townspeople — craftsmen and small merchants — stayed behind. The rich alone left the country as they could live anywhere with their money. A *modus vivendi* was comparatively easily established between the remaining people and the new masters — the migratory populations — who needed grain and the animal products supplied by the Daco-Romans. The first to come were mostly Carpi, i.e. free Dacians from the east and north of Moldavia, blood relations of the population of the formerly Roman province. The towns had more hardships to go through as their glitter and wealth lured the migratory populations. Many townspeople consequently retired to the neighbouring villages but there were plenty left in the smaller houses and the huts on the outskirts, as shown by the archaeological excavations at Alba Iulia (Apulum), Sarmizegetusa, Moigrad (Porolissum) and other centres. The villages got off more lightly: the peasants took their scanty property and, driving their sheep and cattle before them, went into the forests in the vicinity where they took shelter until the onrush subsided. If their cottages or huts had been burnt or pulled down in the meantime, they were not long in putting them up again: there was plenty of wood and rough-casting did not take long.

During the long interval of almost a thousand years that elapsed between the Romans' withdrawal from Dacia and the emergence of the Wallachian state, forests played a main part in maintaining the continuity of the Romanic population left of the Danube, throughout the Carpatho-Danubian area, from the Tisa to the seashore. There has been and still is much talk about "the withdrawal into the mountains," about the shelter provided by the Carpathians throughout that thousand years' interval. But, it should be noted

that mountains were important primarily because of their forests, which provided both shelter and food. Since forests covered not only the mountains but also the hills and a fair part of the plain, the Romanic population was able to survive also over the hilly and flat areas. It is significant that the Slavs designated by *Vlașca* (country of the Vlachs or Romanians) a flat area viz. an immense forest, between the Bărăgan and the Burnaz steppes. That region was covered with extensive forests, drained by many streams — the Colentina, the Dimbovița, the Argeș, the Cilniștea, the Pociovaliștea, etc. — and dotted with lakes and ponds (lakes Snagov, Căldărușani and Greaca, and the Colentina and Mostiștea ponds). There they found the Romanic population, the Vlachs, in numbers, practising agriculture in the clearings, mills and fish ponds, and selling their surplus products in the neighbouring boroughs<sup>1</sup>. It is quite likely that the other name coined by the Slavs to designate the extensive forest north of Bucharest, *Vlășia*, should have the same meaning — the land of the Vlachs — since both Wallachian and Balkan documents use the term of *Vlasi* for the Romanians<sup>2</sup>. In southern Transylvania, a document was issued to the Saxons in 1224, which makes mention of “the forest of the Romanians and of the Petchenegs” (*sylva Blacorum et Bissenorum*)<sup>3</sup>, thus again pointing to the link between our people and forests. As to the Petchenegs, who were cattle breeders and people of the steppe, it is very likely that having lived side by side with the Romanians for some three and a half centuries, they had come to use forests as the Romanians did, i.e. as places of shelter for both men and cattle, their main possession. Consequently, we should speak of the withdrawal of the population into the forests rather than into the mountains.

Co-inhabitation with the Slavs and the latter's assimilation by our forebears have caused a number of terms of Slavic origin referring to forests to become part of the Romanian language. To begin with, a few names of trees, *stejar* (oak — Bulgarian *stežer*); *gîrneață* (large oak — Bulgarian *granica*); *scoruș* (service tree — Bulgarian *skoruša*); and also *crîng* (grove — Old Slavic *krongu*).

<sup>1</sup> Const. C. Giurescu, *The Formation of the Romanian People*, Craiova, 1973, p. 125.

<sup>2</sup> Thus, in a document of ca. 1481 (the answer given by the inhabitants of the Brăila, Buzău and Rimnicul-Sărat counties to Stephen the Great), the Romanians are spoken of as ‘Vlasi’ (Bogdan, *Documents — Brașov*, p. 282–284). On the Vlasi of the Balkan Peninsula see N. Drăgan, *The Romanians in the 9th–14th Centuries, Based on Toponymy and Onomatology*, Bucharest, 1933, p. 17–18, 616; Silviu Dragomir, *The Vlachs in the North of the Balkan Peninsula in the Middle Ages*, Bucharest, 1959, p. 13, 24, 25, 55.

<sup>3</sup> *D.I.R. C.*, vol. I, p. 209.

Also terms designating various kinds of forests: *bucovină*, meaning beech forest, a derivative of *buk* — beech<sup>4</sup>; *dumbravă*, "oak forest," the root being the Old Slavic *дубъ*, oak; *zăvoi*, riverside coppice, from the Slavic *zavoj*; and *huciu*, thick forest, from the Ukrainian *hušča*, thicket, are also of Slav origin.

It is from the Slav term for alder-tree — *elha* — and its derivative, the adjective *elhov*, meaning "with alders" or "alder grove," that the Romanian name of the river Ilfov is derived. It was later adopted for the county as well. Likewise, from *klen* (Slav for maple), the adjective *klenov* was formed, (of alder, with alders), whence the Romanian place name Cleanov, just as from the Slav *dren* (cornel-tree) *drenov* was formed, which means of cornel trees or of the cornel, whence the Romanian place-name Dranov. Likewise, the blackberry bushes along the river banks account for the name of the Tutova, *tut* being the Old Slavic term for blackberries. Subsequently, a county was named after the river.

The Hungarian term for alder was *eger*, from which *egeres* (alder grove) was formed, which is the origin of the Transylvanian place name Aghireș. Another term for alder grove was *egerbegy*, whence the Romanian place name Agîrbici<sup>5</sup>.

From the last migratory populations — the Petchenegs and the Cumans — who remained on our territory between ca. 900 and ca. 1241, comes the name of the vast forest which in former times covered the south-western part of Wallachia, "Teleorman" (*teli* + *orman* = mad forest), whence the name of the river and later the name of the county.

Throughout the migration period, which lasted for about a thousand years, the forest-covered area could not, in our opinion, have decreased compared with what it had been when the Romans withdrew from Dacia, for the population was still sparse and there was room enough for them. It is true that some woodland had been cleared with pick, axe or spade, or by means of fire, but on the other hand the forest was spreading in places where corn or hay had formerly grown. There are no contemporary records testifying to this double process, but terms in the language and subsequent documents point to the procedure used in forest clearing.

<sup>4</sup> There were large beech forests that spread from the Carpathians to the river Siret and a small beech forest between the rivers Siret and Prut (Hurmuzaki — Densușianu, *Documents*, I, 2, p. 485). Fifteenth century Moldavian documents often mention the beech forests in the northern part of the country designating them by the name of *bucovină*. It is from this noun that the Austrians devised the proper name of the province they annexed in 1775.

<sup>5</sup> See Jordan, *Romanian Toponymy*, p. 50, 52 and 357. The names of the rivers Dimbovița and Dimbovnic are also connected to the "oak."



The word *runc* (forest clearing) comes from Latin (*runcus*), pointing to a common practice in Roman Dacia, continued after the Romans had left Dacia. A document issued by Prince Alexandru Lăpușeanu on 9 April 1560 confirms the title of Iliaș Șandru's granddaughters to an estate which included "one fourth of the village of Văsiești, the part towards the river Trotuș, with the glades Podena and Runcul, which are their clearing beyond the river Trotuș, and one fourth of the Borila glade." <sup>6</sup> The statistical map of 1835 worked out in accordance with the census of 1828—1832, records numerous villages bearing that name: thus, *Runcul* in Argeș county, *Runcu* in Vilcea, Dimbovița and Buzău counties, *Runcu-Rediu* and *Runcșoru* in Mehedinți county <sup>7</sup>.

The term *laz* of Slavic origin (from *laz*) <sup>8</sup> has exactly the same meaning as *runc*. We must conclude that the old Slavs, who lived side by side with the Daco-Romans and were in time assimilated by them, practised forest clearing also.

On 16 September 1628, a piece of land was sold at Cotești (Rîmnicul Sărat county). In the bill of sale, it is stated: "and I have also given away the clearing [*laz*] at Gulești" (today Golești) <sup>9</sup>. Between 1 September 1632 and 31 August 1633, a number of freeholders sold Master Neagu "the clearing on which the monastery rises, called Lazul Poșăcăi for 900 bani." <sup>10</sup> The 1835 map also indicates a village name Lazurile in Dimbovița county <sup>11</sup>. Moreover, an act made out in Brașov and dated 6/18 July 1840, referring to Simbăta de Sus village, points out that the serfs had cleared [*au lăzuit*] a forest likely to produce 50 cartfuls of hay <sup>12</sup>. The terms *curătură* and *săcătură* or *secătură* for forest clearing were coined at a later date, after the Romanian language had crystallized. *Curătură* is specifically applied to cleared forest land for use as hayfield while *săcătură* points to the special technique used, viz.: circular barking of the tree resulting in stopping of the sap. In consequence, standing trees dried off were subsequently felled. The timber thus obtained was already dry and could be used straight off to be converted into sawn timber or to be made into any kind of objects. In the early 19th century there were villages named *Curătură* in

<sup>6</sup> D.I.R., A, XVI, vol. II, p. 145.

<sup>7</sup> Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 211, 219, 224, 249, 285.

<sup>8</sup> D.M.R.L., under *laz*.

<sup>9</sup> D.I.R., B, XXII, p. 323—324.

<sup>10</sup> D.I.R., B, XXIII, p. 613.

<sup>11</sup> Giurescu, *op. cit.*, p. 223.

<sup>12</sup> Iorga, *Romanian Acts*, p. 244.

Mehedinți and Iași counties, Blidari-Curătura in Rîmnicul-Sărat county, Văsuiu (Săcătura) and Părosu (Săcătura) in Putna county<sup>13</sup>. The terms *jariște* and *arșiță* have a special meaning: they imply that the cleared area had been obtained by burning down the trees. The vine-growing village of Jariștea (Vrancea county) is well known. The Great Geographical Dictionary, volume I, issued in 1898, lists no less than 47 place names including the word *Arșița*.

A number of 15th and 16th century documents refer to forest clearing: they disclose the way it was done along the thousand-year migration period. The Bucharest deed of 20 March 1543, by which Prince Radu Paisie confirms the title of Mircea and his sons to the estate of the "Goldwasher's Glade" shows that as the land had been full of trees he took great pains to clear it, "with axe and pick and fire."<sup>14</sup>

Instead of the terms *a curăți* or *a lăzui*, here and there the term *a destupa* was used with the meaning of "to clear" as for instance in the 15 March 1718 deed whereby Prince Mihail Racoviță rules that Vasile Danciul and his son be free "to hold his rightful land, to clear [*a destupa*] the forest thereupon and to keep off all the freeholders; the land is theirs, inherited from Bodiman, one of the ancients of the Poiana-Năruja villages."<sup>15</sup>

In Transylvania, mention must be made of the Latin-written letter dated 7 August 1549, sent by Iliăș, Prince of Moldavia, to the Bistrița people asking them to allow his subjects, the inhabitants of Feldru, to remain in possession of the land they had had since long ago and to make clearings in the thick forest<sup>16</sup>. In Transylvania and occasionally beyond the Carpathians in Moldavia, the word *oaș* — derived from the Hungarian *ovas* (*avas*) — is used for clearing<sup>17</sup>. *Țara Oașului* (the Oaș Land) is consequently the land of clearings since much land had been cleared in former times in the great forests that covered the area.

All these man-made clearings, be they called *runcuri*, *curățuri*, *săcățuri*, *lazuri*, *jariști*, *arșițe*, were used as corn- and hayfields, vineyards, bee-gardens, mill sites and orchards, or as places to erect religious buildings or lay construction which, in time, grew into hamlets and subsequently into villages.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 189 and 261. Concerning the term *săcătură* see also H. H. Stahl, *Paysages et peuplement rural en Roumanie*, in *Nouvelles études d'histoire*, III, 1965, p. 73.

<sup>14</sup> D.I.R., B, 16th century, vol. II, p. 297.

<sup>15</sup> Sava, *Putna Documents*, p. 64.

<sup>16</sup> Hurmuzaki-Iorga, *Documents*, XV, 1, p. 474.

<sup>17</sup> Iordan, *op. cit.*, p. 23.



## ROMANIAN FORESTS IN THE 14th—18th CENTURIES

*"When the Poles overran our land, the whole country fled to the forests."*

(Document of 26 September 1617, Radu Mihnea, Prince of Moldavia).

**Forests'role in the country's defence and as places of refuge.** Forests have played a significant part in the battles fought in defence of the country, being an important "ally" of the Romanian armies. Considering the usual numerical superiority of the opponent armies, whether Turkish, Hungarian, Polish or ever Tartar, a superiority which gave our armies no chance of success in the open field where the disproportion of forces was plainly visible, our great voivodes resorted to the shelter of forests, which obliterated this disproportion: surprise attacks thus became possible, defence operations were easier to carry through, and if a retreat was necessary, it was a covered retreat. We have already quoted two 16th century testimonies concerning the part played by forests in this respect\* and will now set forth a number of concrete cases for illustration.

First and foremost, we would refer to the decisive battle fought at Posada (1330), which secured the independence of the young Wallachian state founded by Basarab I, the first of the Basarab dynasty. The reasons that led to the war between Wallachia's Prince and Charles Robert, King of Hungary, are not very well known; two of Charles Robert's officials seem to be responsible for it as they wanted to have for their own Basarab's country or at least the Severin Banat. The war started in the autumn; the Hungarian army, advancing over a country which, according to an old custom, had been laid waste, was unable to revictual, and consequently suffered from hunger — "the great hunger" as the Hungarian chronicler puts it. And so, having reached "the citadel on the Arges" — i.e. Curtea de Argeş — the king had to order a retreat. On the way home, the Hungarian army marched through a long, narrow valley whose sheer slopes were covered with forests. Basarab's soldiers, who had occupied the heights and had closed both ends of the valley

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\* See p. 14—15.

with ditches and earth works, rolled down rocks and felled trees on the crowding Hungarian hosts while shooting arrows at them. It was a calamitous four days (9–12 November 1330). Charles Robert's men fell in numbers, the seal of the kingdom was lost, and the king himself escaped by the skin of his teeth, changing his clothes with those of one of his faithful servants so that he might extricate himself from the scramble unobserved. The details set forth above were recorded in a contemporaneous Hungarian chronicle, *Chronicon Pictum Vindobonense*, so entitled on account of the miniatures illustrating the texts, two of which deal with the battle<sup>1</sup>.

The site of this memorable battle, which proved the strength of the new Romanian state and at the same time enabled it to develop freely, is not known for certain. A number of historians locate it between Cimpulung and Bran, at a place named Posada.

Yet from Curtea de Argeş, the shortest way out of the country was by way of Lovištea and the Olt valley towards Sibiu. It is consequently more likely for the battle to have been fought between Curtea de Argeş and Sibiu, most probably at Lovištea.

A similar battle was fought several decades later, during the reign of Vladislav I (Prince Vlaicu). Again it was the Hungarian army that attacked. In the autumn of 1368, some time after October 13th, that army which, according to the Chronicle of John of Küküllő, was made up of noblemen, Szecklers and of many outstanding warriors under the command of Nicholas Lackfi, Prince of Transylvania, crossed the mountains with the intent to attack the rear of Vlaicu's army, which had to face a second Hungarian army about to cross the Danube<sup>2</sup>. Against the army that was coming down from the mountains, Vlaicu had sent Dragomir, commander of the Dimbovița citadel. After a first clash during which he fared none too well, Dragomir withdrew, luring the opposing army into a wooded district full of dangerous places. Let us now quote from the chronicles: "After which, advancing unheedingly farther through dense forests and being engaged in very narrow paths," Nicholas Lackfi "was attacked by the numberless Romanians in the forests and in the mountains, and was left dead, together with the worthy Peter, his vice-voivode, with Deseu, also named Vas, with Petrus Ruffus, commander of Cetatea de Baltă, with the Szecklers Peter and Ladislaus, valiant men, and with many other warriors and out-

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<sup>1</sup> *Chronicon Pictum Vindobonense*, in *Scriptores Rerum Hungaricarum*, I, ed. G. I. Schwandtner, Vienna, 1746, p. 496–498.

<sup>2</sup> Maria Holban, *Contributions to the Study of Relations between Wallachia and Angevin Hungary...*, in *S.M.I.M.* I (1965), p. 41–42.

standing noblemen. And after the Hungarians had dispersed and taken to their heels, coming upon muddy and swampy places, many of them were killed by the Romanians. Few of them escaped with great peril for their person and with loss of property. The body of Prince Nicholas having been taken from the Romanians following heavy fighting, was carried to Hungary to be buried at Strigonia [Esztergom].”<sup>3</sup> The place where the battle of 1368 was fought is not known either. It must have been in a forest-clad district of Wallachia, perhaps where the hills meet the plain, considering that the pursuit took place in “muddy and swampy” places.

Giving an account of Bayazid’s war against Prince Mircea the Old — it is impossible to specify whether it was the war of 1394 or of 1400 — the Byzantine chronicler Laonicus Chalcocondylas states that, having first sent the women and children to safe places in the mountains, “Mircea with his army followed in Bayazid’s track over the oak forests of the country, which are numerous and cover the country everywhere, so that it was not easy for the enemies to go about and for the country to be conquered.”<sup>4</sup>

Another great battle fought in the shelter of the forest was that waged by Prince Bogdan, Stephen the Great’s father, against the Poles who wished to bring Prince Alexandru, their devotee, back to the throne of Moldavia. It took place in the great Crasna Forest south of Vaslui, not far from the village of Crasna. The road followed by the Polish host traversed this forest, and that is where Bogdan’s army lay in wait for it. This is the account the Moldavian chronicle gives of it: “So when they reached the heart of the forest, Prince Bogdan’s army rushed upon the Poles’ waggons, and the Poles, putting up a defence, made a narrow escape with much loss of property and life. And when the other Polish army prepared to join in the fight, the whole of Prince Bogdan’s army came up, with many banners and long horns, without any cavalry, but with many foot soldiers. Seeing which, the Poles prepared for war and putting Prince Alexandru in the middle..., they fought from before sunset until dark, many perishing on both sides, until the crowds of foot soldiers rushed into the fray, and in that narrow place killed Poles in numbers, cutting the horses’ veins with their scythes; whereupon, the Polish hetmans, intending to egg on their men, went head foremost into the fray and perished....”<sup>5</sup> The details given by the

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<sup>3</sup> John of Küküllö (of Tirnave) in *Scriptores Hungaricarum veteres ac genuini*, Tyrnaviae, ed. Schwandtner, 1765, pars I, p. 311—313.

<sup>4</sup> Laonic Chalcocondil, *Historical Exposés*, translated into Romanian by Vasile Grecu, Bucharest, 1958, p. 64, note 2.

<sup>5</sup> *Chronicle of Moldavia*, p. 38—39.



chronicler on Prince Bogdan's army are well worth underlining : "without any cavalry, but with many foot soldiers." The cavalry would have been of no use in a battle fought in the forest : it would have found it difficult to move or to spread out, and a grouped onslaught would have been impossible because of the trees. On the other hand the infantry, fighting in the sheltering forest, shooting their arrows from behind the tree trunks, was to be feared, with a definite advantage over the opponent. We believe young Stephen, Bogdan's son, who was to come to Moldavia's throne seven years later, to have taken part in the battle of Crasna. He was to remember that battle of his youth on the occasion of the war he himself waged on the Poles in 1497, when he was to apply a similar method, which had already become classical.

A most representative battle fought in the forest is Stephen the Great's battle in the Cosmin Forest against John Albert, King of Poland. The latter had entered Moldavia with hostile intent and had besieged the stronghold of Suceava, though unsuccessfully. According to an old custom in these parts, Stephen had ordered that all provisions and fodder should be concealed and that whatever could not be concealed should be burnt. At the same time the northward roads had been blocked so that no food or fodder could be got from Poland either.

Before long, John Albert's army was starving. And so the Polish king was glad to have the Prince of Transylvania — who in the meantime had come to support Stephen with 12,000 men — mediate a peace. Peace was concluded but with the express condition that the Poles should withdraw the way they had come and not along any other way, so as to preclude further damage to the country. But no food could be got "the way they had come," so the Poles had to follow another route by the towns of Siret and Cernăuți, which ran through the Cosmin Forest. When the Polish army was half way through the forest, the Moldavians brought down over them trees that had been almost cut through, but still stood up and attacked staunchly (26 October 1497). There being no place for them to flee to and unable to spread out because of the narrow space available, the Poles were cut down, as Charles Robert's Hungarians had been in the past. It was only with great difficulty that the king managed to make his way to Cernăuți, where another battle was fought. Defeated once more, few of John Albert's soldiers saw their country again<sup>6</sup>. The tradition recorded by chronicler Neculce

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<sup>6</sup> On the battle in the Cosmin Forest see *The Anonymous Chronicle*, in *Slavo-Romanian Chronicles*, p. 21.



is that Stephen ordered prisoners to plough extensive plots of land, which were subsequently sown with acorns. It was thus that oak forests (*dumbrăvi*) grew "as a reminder that Moldavia should not be encroached thereafter: the Dumbrava Roșie at Botoșani, the Dumbrava Roșie at Cotnar and the Dumbrava Roșie below Roman." <sup>7</sup> There are some who doubt the veracity of this tradition. We think there is nothing to prevent us from admitting it. The details Neculce provides on the way prisoners were dealt with do not seem to be fictitious. A previous study showed that many of the traditions recorded by Neculce do not tamper with historical facts or that they contain at least a grain of truth <sup>8</sup>.

After the battle of Baia (15 December 1467), Matthew Corvinus, King of Hungary, had to withdraw hurriedly, as he had been wounded by a three-point arrow. On reaching the mountains, however, he "found the road blocked by felled trees" as the Polish chronicler Długosz tells us. So he set fire to his waggons and belongings and buried fifty cannons for fear they should fall into the Moldavians' hands <sup>9</sup>.

Forests played an important part also in another of Stephen the Great's victories, that of Vaslui (January, 1475). The prince had chosen a forest-covered district with a marshy riverside wood on one side. Behind that wood, Stephen had stationed a detachment whose trumpets and fifes were intended to lure the enemy into the marshes. And this actually happened. While the Turkish army plodded their way thither fighting the mud, with cannons floundering in it, a corps of Moldavian soldiers under cover in the neighbouring woods attacked their flanks and a third corps their rear, which caused Soliman the Eunuch to withdraw, and the withdrawal soon turned into a rout <sup>10</sup>. The pursuit lasted for four days "from Tuesday to Friday night," as the chronicle states, the Turkish army "wading through thick mud." Some of the fugitives drowned in the river Siret and some in the Danube, and many were taken prisoners. Seldom had such a disastrous defeat been sustained, as the Turkish chroniclers themselves admit. One of them, Seadedin, states: "Most of the Islam soldiers perished... and many brave ones died on the battlefield; the Eunuch... made a narrow escape."<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>7</sup> Neculce, *Chronicle of Moldavia*, p. 11–12.

<sup>8</sup> Const. C. Giurescu, *The Historical Values of the Traditions Recorded by Ioan Neculce*, in *Studies on Folklore and Literature*, Bucharest, 1967, p. 439–495.

<sup>9</sup> Ioannis Dlugossi seu Longini *Historiae Polonicae*, vol. II, Leipzig, 1712, p. 418.

<sup>10</sup> *Chronicle of Moldavia*, p. 57–58.

<sup>11</sup> *Turkish Chronicles*, I, p. 322.

It was also close to a wood, namely the Lipinți or Lipnic wood that Stephen the Great defeated the Tartars who had come to Moldavia on a plundering raid (20 August 1470)<sup>12</sup>. And at Războieni, where the battle was fought on a wooded plateau east of Valea Albă, the Moldavians fighting desperately and being ultimately crushed, the withdrawal was also effected in the shelter of the forest (26 July 1476)<sup>13</sup>.

Forests provided safety in case of withdrawal; a significant illustration of the fact was the episode in the battle of Popricani between the foot soldiers of Gheorghe Ștefan, the new Prince of Moldavia and the Cossacks of Timush Hmielnitzki, who were bringing Vasile Lupu back to the throne. During that battle, seeing the impetuous onrush of the Cossack cavalry, the Moldavian infantry "made a bee-line from the ford [Jijia's ford] to the copse on the hill," but Timush's cavalry overtook them on the Popricani slope and many of the unfortunate soldiers fell there. "Others, who reached the copse in safety saved their lives in that wood."<sup>14</sup>

Michael the Brave also took advantage of forests. At Călugăreni, there were small wooded heights forming a natural shelter behind the position taken up by the prince, facing the swampy valley of the river Neajlov. The way ran over the wooden bridge that spanned the river and subsequently between those heights so that the Turkish army could only advance in a column, with a narrow front. While Michael, at the head of his army, in a fulgurating counterattack repelled the Turks who had crossed the bridge, a detachment four hundred strong under the command of Captain Cocea, attacked from the rear under cover of the forest. The Turks panicked and withdrew in disorder. Sinan Pasha himself was pitched from the bridge into the swamp and would have found his death had a Rumelian veteran not saved him, carrying him on his back<sup>15</sup>.

A few more details concerning forests and the part they played in the Turkish expedition against Michael the Brave are culled from the account given by an eye-witness, the Spaniard Diego Galán. We learn from the latter that Sinan Pasha had ordered the fleet made up of four frigates under the command of Mami Pasha, to sail down the Danube in order to take on board the Tartar Khan who was to assist the Turks and "feared the dangers he would have come up against in the many forests that adorned the country."

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<sup>12</sup> Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, II, p. 60.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 69.

<sup>14</sup> Costin, *Chronicle of Moldavia*, in *Works*, p. 146.

<sup>15</sup> Giurescu—Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, p. 272.

On its way back, the fleet was apprised of the Romanians having prepared an ambush "in a thick clump of trees" with muskets and twenty pieces of ordnance. And indeed the galleys were fired upon at that spot. Sustaining losses and being in danger of sinking, the frigates withdrew behind an island on the right bank of the Danube and reached Rustchuk three days after<sup>16</sup>. Concerning the battle-field at Călugăreni, the Turkish chronicler Selaniki states that it was "very narrow, wooded and swampy,"<sup>17</sup> while another Turkish chronicler, Naima, points out that there was an "oak forest" there, which the Spaniard Diego Galán describes as "very dense," adding that it was in that forest that Michael was lying in wait "with the few men he had at his disposal and with twelve pieces of ordnance."<sup>18</sup>

A valuable testimony concerning forests as places of shelter in time of war is that of a Jesuit describing the calamities that occurred in Moldavia in 1653. "Those unfortunate people, whose only concern was to keep alive, filled the forests, mountains and caves so that genuine settlements seemed to have been formed in those hiding places and only the more audacious were wont to come out of the forests to see their ravaged homes again". Those men also suffered at the hands of the robbers who "roamed the forests, attacking the people hiding there"<sup>19</sup>.

We should also bring out the part played by the Tigheciu forest in the country's defence against the Tartars, as shown by Dimitrie Cantemir in *Descriptio Moldaviae*. This is what the scholarly prince says: "The other forest spreading on the opposite bank of the Prut at the border of Bessarabia, is named Tigheciu and is nearly 30 Italian miles in circumference. It is Moldavia's strongest bastion against the Scythians [= Tartars], which the latter tried several times to conquer, though without success. The trees therein are so close that even a man on foot can make his way only along paths known solely to the people of those parts. In former days there were over 12,000 inhabitants there, the most stalwart warriors throughout Moldavia; today, after so much fighting and slaughtering on either side, there are barely 2,000 left. They have an understanding with the Tartars of the Bugeac, their neighbours, whereby they have engaged to supply them with a certain number of tree trunks every year, for Bessarabia is in great want of forests. They observe the understanding most strictly to this day; but if the Tartars infringe

<sup>16</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, III, p. 525—526 and 528.

<sup>17</sup> *Turkish Chronicles*, I, p. 371.

<sup>18</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, III, p. 529.

<sup>19</sup> *Ibidem*, V, p. 501.



the terms and demand more, which occurs not infrequently, they oppose them arm-in-hand and are often victorious.”<sup>20</sup>

Even when fighting outside the country, our soldiers sought the forest for support. This is what happened in 1422 when a cavalry detachment was sent by Alexander the Good, Prince of Moldavia, to Ladislaus Jagiello to assist him in his struggle against the Teuton Knights, who has settled in Eastern Prussia when compelled to leave the Birsá Land. In front of the Marienburg citadel, the Moldavians’ detachment was attacked by an army which outnumbered them. They then withdrew in good order into a forest in the vicinity, where they dismounted and posted themselves each behind a tree, waiting for the Teutons’ attack, their bows ready to shoot. Giving an account of the incident, Długosz, the Polish chronicler, adds that the Moldavians had got into the forest so that they might “more easily fight as foot soldiers, under cover of the foliage and of the trees, according to the custom and the inclination of their nation” (*equis desiliunt, facilius, ut est mos et natura gentis, tecti fronde et ligno, pedestres certaturi*). When, sure of their victory, the Teutons rushed into the forest, they were met by a thick hail of arrows. Many of the attackers were killed or wounded, and the remainder withdrew in disorder, pursued by the Moldavians. “It was thus that a handful of Moldavians miraculously came to defeat a large enemy army and returned ... victorious and laden with huge quantities of booty.”<sup>21</sup>

In the 17th and the 18th centuries as well, forests continued to serve as shelter in time of war or of rebellion. In this connection, the words spoken in 1658 by the High Court Marshal of Wallachia to the learned monk Paul of Aleppo when the latter halted in Wallachia as part of the retinue of Patriarch Macarius, are significant: “Our country has no castles. It is these mountains and forests against which no enemy can prevail, that do duty for castles and strongholds. Had it been otherwise, had we had citadels on our territory, the Turks would have expelled us from them long ago.”<sup>22</sup> No less significant are the comments of the English traveller Robert Bargrave who, traversing Moldavia by way of the Birlad valley in October 1652, wrote that he had travelled for about 12 hours along a rich valley; the hills were covered on both inclines with splendid forests, which

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<sup>20</sup> *Descriptio Moldaviae*, p. 110—111. In his *Chronicle of Moldavia*, Miron Costin also gives a picture of the Tigheciu forest (*op. cit.*, p. 132).

<sup>21</sup> I. Długosz, *Opera omnia*, ed. Przewdziecki, vol. XIII, p. 301—302.

<sup>22</sup> Paul of Aleppo in *The Travels of Macarius*, ed. F.C. Belfour, vol. II, London, 1836, p. 396.



were the natives' refuge against enemy raids and in fact defended them against the Tartars when they raided Moldavia.<sup>23</sup>

The memorial drawn up in 1697 by Nicolò de Porta, an Austrian official who, in 1694, had been in the service of Moldavia's Prince Constantin Duca, is most instructive. He wrote : "The country is covered by vast forests ; between the forests small boroughs and villages are scattered, and if there are any boroughs and villages in the flat plain, they are surely in the vicinity of a forest where the people seek refuge and where they bury their provisions, tools and everything they possess. If an enemy army entered the darkness of those thick forests, they would have no means of subsistence. Only few people can move about in the forests and those few are most likely killed by the peasants who hide therein and oblige the enemy to scatter about the plain. The natives, however, can manage, as in those forests they have many monasteries which in case of need can provide shelter ; of late Wallachia's prince and his predecessor<sup>24</sup> have erected various such monasteries at suitable places, very much like citadels."<sup>25</sup> We would also mention that during the Russo-Austrian-Turkish war of 1736—1739, the wooded ravines of the Odobești Hill sheltered some refugees from the neighbouring places and even from Focșani<sup>26</sup>.

We will conclude this chapter on forest as places of refuge and shelter with an incident from the time of the First World War. As the war dragged on, the Serbian, Croat, Slovene, Dalmatian, Romanian and Slovak soldiers in the Austro-Hungarian army began to desert and to form armed detachments in the forests and mountains — the so-called "green companies", supported by the villagers who provided them with food, money and clothing. "There was such a detachment also in the mountains and forests of Transylvania, the same as in the northern Slovak and Galician Carpathians."<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>23</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, V, p. 487.

<sup>24</sup> Namely Brâncoveanu and Șerban Cantacuzino.

<sup>25</sup> N. Iorga, *Geographical Documents*, Bucharest, 1900, p 22—23.

<sup>26</sup> Giurescu, *Odobești*, p. 28—29.

<sup>27</sup> Șt. Pascu, Const. C. Giurescu, I. Kovács, L. Vajda, *Sidelights on the Agrarian Problem in the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy at the Beginning of the 20th Century in Disintegration of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy*, Bucharest, 1964, p. 85. The official statistics of the Hungarian gendarmerie of June 12th, 1918 shows that there were 38,000 deserters in 1916 ; 81,811 in 1917 and 44,600 during the first three months of 1918 alone. (*Ibidem*, p. 85, note 183).

## FORESTS AS CONSTITUTIVE PARTS OF A LANDED ESTATE LANDMARKS IN FORESTS

*Forests are constitutive parts of landed estate;  
in the deeds determining the boundaries, trees  
are often landmarks.*

In freeholders' villages, each man's right to the forest as well as to the stream, to the fields and to pasture was well known and specified in documents. Sales, purchases and confirmations always mentioned a forest as a constitutive part of a landed estate. There are thousands of such deeds: we will confine ourselves to citing a few of them.

In Bucharest, on 16 January 1592, Prince Ștefan confirmed by a princely deed a purchase made at Fedeleşoi by Neagoe and his wife, namely "that part of the estate that belonged to Pătrașco and to his brother Stanciul, the whole of it as much as shall be delimited from the village site, from the field and from the forest, from the stream and from the vine-planted hill, from the whole area within the boundary, for it had been purchased for 3,800 aspers."<sup>1</sup> In a deed of 15 April 1622 — whereby Moiseiu, son of Grozav of Răchitiș, sells Court Marshal Dumitrașco half the heritage of old in Răchitiș and in Răchitoasa on the Zeletin — the various parts of the estate that had been sold are specified: the field, the forest including cleared areas, the hayfields and a site of mill. The price was 8 ducats <sup>2</sup>. Under another deed dated 16 September 1622, Cup-bearer Udriște of Cîmpina sells all his share of the Periș estate "giving away all over the village the twelfth part of the forest, of the field, of the stream and of the mill" to Hrizea, High Treasurer, "for 30 ducats ready money and 5 ells of fine cloth."<sup>3</sup> When on 8 June 1629, Court Marshal Ivașco and 12 other boyars determined the boundaries of the Hărești estates belonging to Court Marshals Aslan and Hrizea, they specified: "We have made two shares, the field separately and the forest also separately, then compared the field and the forest, giving to both

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<sup>1</sup> D.I.R., B, 16th century, vol. VI, p. 28.

<sup>2</sup> State Archives, Bucharest, ms. 573, f. 51.

<sup>3</sup> State Archives, Bucharest, ms. 256, f. 235.

of them a field and a forest area.”<sup>4</sup> On 3 April 1635, Prince Matei Basarab confirmed the title of the freeholders of Turcinești (Gorj county) to their estate, “with all its boundaries and incomes, part of the field and of the forest and of the stream from one boundary to the other, according to the ancient boundaries and signs.”<sup>5</sup> In the Troțuș borough, on 7 February 1732, Mavric the Greek and his daughters sold to Former Grain Collector Grigorcea and to his wife Roxanda, their share of the Dărmănești estate (Bacău county) “part of the village site and of the field and of the stream, with a mill site, and part of the forest and of the cleared areas, with all the income,” for 45 gold ducats, two cows with calves and a mare<sup>6</sup>.

Similarly in Transylvania, a forest was an integral part of an estate, specified in the document together with the other constitutive parts, immediately after the villages and cultivated fields and before the vineyards, orchards, hayfields and fisheries. Thus on 30 March 1223, when Pope Honorius III took under his protection Margaret, former empress of Constantinople, and all her property, the enumeration of that property included the Kewe citadel, the Iladia estate in Banat and a number of other possessions “together with the villages, forests, vineyards and fisheries.”<sup>7</sup> Furthermore, a deed of Sintimbru, dated 25 August 1347, specifies in relation to the Păuca estate in the Alba county “together with all its appurtenances, namely with the fields under cultivation, the forests, groves, orchards, hayfields, streams and fishing places.”<sup>8</sup>

Matei Basarab’s document mentioned above refers to “the ancient boundaries and signs.” The latter were landmarks set when the boundaries were delimited with stones, sometimes with ashes or coals underneath, mounds, occasionally twin ones, trees marked or branded or sometimes very big trees.

The oldest documents in which trees are mentioned as landmarks have been found in Transylvania. In 1216 King Andrew II bestowed on Comes Mere of Sătmăr a piece of land named Nichola, depending on the Cenad citadel. It was specified that the boundary was “where two big oaks stand,” and then “along the road, close to a big oak.”<sup>9</sup> The same king bestowed the Suplac estate on High Treasurer Dionisie, for his steadfast faith. The deed specifying the

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<sup>4</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XXII, p. 552–553.

<sup>5</sup> Ștefulescu, *Slavo-Romanian Documents*, p. 466–467.

<sup>6</sup> *D.R.H.*, A, vol. XXI, p. 7.

<sup>7</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 11th, 12th, 13th centuries, p. 197.

<sup>8</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 14th century, vol. IV, p. 393–394.

<sup>9</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 11th, 12th, 13th centuries, vol. I, p. 159.



boundaries stated : "the boundary mark is under the oak, then goes up left between two beeches..." and goes "down to a poplar-tree"; another mark is "a cross on a tree", another "under the big tree."<sup>10</sup> A deed of 1 May 1256 issued at Oradea concerning an estate in Bihor mentions : "The oaks notched with the axe... the plain named the Cornel-tree Island."<sup>11</sup> The demarcation of the boundaries of the Șimleul Silvaniei estate in Crasna county (today Sălaj county) is characteristic : "up to an oak, up to two landmarks... up to a pear-tree, to two landmarks, the pear-tree itself being a landmark... up to two landmarks, one of which is under an oak... under a tree named 'Jartan.' Towards two other landmarks under oaks... two big landmarks under the trees... up to the oak beneath which is the landmark... over a hill-top to two landmarks one of which is under an oak... Close to the Irswa Forest there are two landmarks under an oak."<sup>12</sup> The landmarks are "mounds surrounded by trees" as shown in a document dated 1282<sup>13</sup>; at other times a tree — usually an oak — with earth heaped around it, as mentioned in a deed made out at Șelimbăr on 17 February 1339, when Comes Nicolae of Tălmăciu returned to that village a piece of land he had unlawfully occupied<sup>14</sup>. The deed also stated : "If the forest burns" (accidentally or for clearing purposes) the Tălmăciu people "should not afterwards get into the forest to graze their cattle or for other purposes; those that get into it shall be prosecuted by the people of Șelimbăr."

Apart from oaks, other varieties of trees were used as landmarks : alder-trees, hornbeams<sup>15</sup>, willows<sup>16</sup>, poplars<sup>17</sup>, sycamore maples<sup>17</sup>, walnut-trees<sup>18</sup>, pear-trees<sup>19</sup> or any other trees, including the wild varieties of fruit trees. In Transylvania a cross was often notched on the trees as a sign. A deed dated 24 May 1348 concerning the Bercu estate (in the Satu Mare county) states that the boundary "traverses a large forest, making west between cross-shaped boundary signs marked on trees."<sup>20</sup>

<sup>10</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, vol. I, p. 233—234.

<sup>11</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, vol. II, p. 17.

<sup>12</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 13th century, vol. II, p. 28—30.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 236.

<sup>14</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, vol. III, p. 502.

<sup>15</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 14th century, vol. IV, p. 531 (Document of March 3rd 1350 : 'Two-pointed alder').

<sup>16</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 13th century, vol. II, p. 410—411 (Document of March 20th 1295).

<sup>17</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 14th century, vol. IV, p. 55—58 (Document of September 29th 1341 : 'near a poplar').

<sup>18</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 363 (Document of May 27th, 1347 : 'two walnut trees').

<sup>19</sup> *D.I.R.*, vol. III, p. 326—327 (Document of July 9th 1334 : 'up to a pear-tree').

<sup>20</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 14th century, vol. IV, p. 441.



In Moldavia, when the boundaries were delimited by the prince's officials, the iron that served to brand trees was shaped like an aurochs' head. In Wallachia, letters or plain geometrical figures were used.

The deed setting forth the boundaries of Voroneț Monastery after Stephen the Great had added to it a village site named Poiana, is dated Suceava, 26 November 1490, and reads: "starting from the river Moldova, facing Voroneț... beyond the highroad and beyond the forest to the spring head, to a marked hornbeam, thence following the stream, to a marked fir on the hilltop... thence downhill to a marked fir, between two valleys, thence straight on to a limetree marked with an aurochs' head, near the road, where the road comes out of the forest, thence straight on to the source of the Humor, to a marked alder, thence following the source to where it comes out of the forest, crossing the Humor to a marked poplar, thence along the edge of the forest and to a marked beech near the highroad, where the highroad comes out of the forest."<sup>21</sup>

The deed of 21 July 1668 whereby Iliș Alexandru, Prince of Moldavia, confirms the title of Topolița Monastery to "a stretch of forest named Țoliciol," the gift of Prince Alexandru, mentions: "The boundary begins in the Crêțoaia glade in the Țoliciol forest and runs straight on to the cherry-tree mound... and thence along the Ciolpan slope from aurochs to aurochs."<sup>22</sup> In a document of 8 July 1779, delimiting the boundaries of the Căucești estate in Tutova, it is stated that "an aurochs was branded... on the trees... on a young apple-tree... on a cherry-tree... and on an oak."<sup>23</sup> A document of the same date sets forth the boundaries of the Oboga estate, which Treasurer Gheorghiță Argetoianul had received as his wife's dowry, the boundaries being delimited on the basis of an older document dated 1700. The old deed stated: "from the river Olteț, above the thicket along the Olteț, over the landslide, to the branded oak, uphill over the riverside meadow to the dale between the glades, fronting the Turkey oaks, up to the valley to the road where the branded trees are, below the hill-top, and before reaching the top again to the branded tree... to the Ocheșăl glade... up to the branded tree... to the source of the river Rumâni." We quote from the 1779 deed: "to the edge of the pond where box thorn grows, where

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<sup>21</sup> D.I.R., A, 15th century, vol. II, p. 146.

<sup>22</sup> T. G. Bulat, *Document of the Văratec Monastery*, p. 24. Ciolpan is a term connected with forests meaning 'a tree trunk left standing without any branches', also 'tree broken by the wind'. (*D.M.R.L., sub voce*).

<sup>23</sup> Academy, *Documents*, CLXXXV/324.

two ash-trees were branded and thence straight on over the pond to the branded poplar... to the opening of the dale... where a pear-tree and a Turkey oak were branded" then "up to the big branded oak were a stone has also been laid... up to the oak with three branded-in marks."<sup>24</sup>

Sometimes, the name of the tree was alone given when delimiting the boundary, without stating that it had been branded. The deed issued at Țirgoviște on 10 November 1528 relative to an estate belonging to Argeș Monastery mentions: "up to the beech in the elder grove... up to the beech... by way of the leafless poplar... up to the Secară beech... along the Cherry-tree valley... to the Săcară apple-tree... up to the alders... up to the mulberry-tree."<sup>25</sup> Likewise, the document issued by Prince Vlad on May 1531 to confirm the title of the Cutlumuz Monastery on Mount Athos to its estates, referring to the boundaries of the village of Hîrtești, reads: "up to the big lime-tree... crossing the riverside meadow to the big ash-tree."<sup>26</sup> And again in a document of 23 April 1628 setting forth the boundaries of the ponds of Viforita Monastery, at Vărăști and Gurguiati (Ialomița county): "up to the Stajariu rivulet, from Sticleanu to the Danube, and down the Danube along the sedge plots to Varanghel, and thence from one tree to the next, and from there over the field from mound to mound."<sup>27</sup>

In old documents forests are often elements whereby the site of a village is delimited. A village is said to be "close to the forest" or "in the riverside copse" or "next to the coppice," etc. We will give a few examples to illustrate the above. On 29 January 1434, Ștefan, Prince of Moldavia, bestowed on boyar Blaj and his brothers four villages on the river Crasna, one of which was sited "close to the forest where Pavel the Bulgarian lives." On 17 July 1436, the same prince, together with his brother Ilie, confirmed Chancellor Vancea's title to his villages one of which was sited "near Bic, on the other side, in the valley that opens before Albaș's Cheșenău, at the well where the Tartar village is, next to the coppice."<sup>28</sup> On 16 March 1490, Stephen the Great bought for 500 Tartar zlotys from Hărman's heirs "a village named Voitin where the house of their father — Hărman — and of their uncle Iațco had been, at the place where the Voitin rivulet emerges from the forest and the glades,

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<sup>24</sup> Academy, *Documents*, CCCLXXI/222.

<sup>25</sup> *D.I.R.*, B. 16th century, vol. II, p. 58.

<sup>26</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 98.

<sup>27</sup> *D.I.R.*, B. XXII, p. 116.

<sup>28</sup> Costăchescu, *Moldavian Documents*, p. 374—375 and 459—560.

where their monastery and their old hayfields had been, close to the forest." The village was bestowed by Prince Stephen on Putna Monastery, his foundation. On 14 March 1497, Stephen confirmed the sale of two villages: "Puțeni in the riverside copse" and "another village on the edge of the copse, where Muntenii Puțeni had been." Two and a half years later, on 22 September 1499, Stephen graciously bestowed on a servant of his two villages "close to the forest," namely Cervacinții and Șarba. On November 15th of the same year, mention is made of the village "close to the forest, where Zîrnă had been."<sup>29</sup> Finally, on 24 March 1559, Alexandru Lăpușneanu confirmed the title of Ion Diac, his wife and his brothers to "half the village of Oglinzi, which is close to the forest in Neamț county," bought for 370 Tartar zlotys<sup>30</sup>.

There are settlements which owe their development to the forests. Just as Ottawa, Canada's capital city, is the creation of the vast Canadian forest<sup>31</sup>, *mutatis mutandis*, a number of our own settlements have developed due to their proximity to forests, more precisely thanks to woodworking enterprises. Mâneci-Ungureni (Prahova county) is a case in point for it has developed into a town owing in the first place to its sawn timber factory. The same may be said about Nehoi (Buzău county) and Brezoi in the Lotru Valley (Vilcea county). Around one or several sawmills a hamlet was gradually built up and then developed into a village. Thus in Vrancea, Herăstrău [sawmill] village developed from Vetrești hamlet which was made up of 70 homesteads in 1835<sup>32</sup>. Furthermore, Bușteni (Prahova county), formerly a place where logs were stored, is now a town, and Herăstrău, on the outskirts of Bucharest, a hamlet of 5—20 cottages in 1835, is today a picturesque residential district of the capital of the country.

<sup>29</sup> D.I.R., A, 15th century, vol. II, p. 140, 270, 290—291.

<sup>30</sup> D.I.R., A, 16th century, vol. II, p. 119.

<sup>31</sup> Donald Creighton, *Canada's First Century 1867—1967*, Toronto, 1970, p. 1.

<sup>32</sup> Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 244 and 262.



## THE PRESERVES

*The "law" of the preserves mentioned by Matei Basarab, is proof that this was an age-old institution and was part of the "custom of the country".*

Preserves (*braniști*) were reserved areas to which nobody had access for such purposes as cutting wood, making hay, grazing cattle, hunting, fishing or picking forest fruits without the owner's permission. Trespassing was liable to punishment, varying from seizure of the trespasser's cart, axe, hunting or fishing tackle or clothes, to cutting off his hand or hanging. The word *braniște* is of old Slavonic origin, being derived from *braniti*, "to forbid." The term was adopted long ago, while the Romanians and the Slavs lived side by side, and it was used in all the Romanian countries: Wallachia, Moldavia and Transylvania. The institution, however, is of far longer date: the Daco-Romans had it and also, most probably, the Daco-Getae.

Preserves differed according as their owners were the ruling prince, a monastery or a boyar, and their area varied. The prince's preserves were generally the most extensive.

In Wallachia there were a fair number of princely preserves which we think dated from the 14th century, when the state was founded. Special officials (*brăniștari*) were appointed to keep watch over the prince's preserves and to punish trespassers. There was such a preserve in Ialomița county, more precisely in the area around the confluence of the river Ialomița with the Danube and around the Borcea backwaters. The officials in charge are mentioned by Prince Radu the Handsome in a document dated 15 January 1467, confirming the Cozia monastery title to the Danube backwaters from Săpatul to the Ialomița mouth, which had been bestowed on the monastery by Mircea the Old. It is specified: "And nobody is to interfere. Neither the commanders of Floci, nor the *brăniștari*, nor any of my boyars and officials."<sup>1</sup> The Ialomița backwaters had all the elements specific to a preserve: forest land along the Danube,

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<sup>1</sup> D.R.H., B, I, p. 224.



hence timber, game, and forest fruit, streams, hence fisheries, grazing ground and hayfields for cattle and sheep, as well as places suitable for bee-gardens.

We should also quote the princely preserve at Slatina (on the Olt river)<sup>2</sup>; the one in the neighbourhood of Buzău town (mentioned on 8 September 1525)<sup>3</sup> and a fourth one in Vlaşca county close to a village which is still called Brăniştari<sup>4</sup>.

Moldavia also had princely preserves as early as the state foundation. The most important was the one of Bohotin, south-east of Iaşi, spreading over a considerable area in the former Iaşi and Fălciu counties and including numerous bee-gardens, excellent hayfields, forests and water streams<sup>5</sup>. Another broad princely preserve stretched on the lower reaches of the Siret, not far off from its mouth, in the former Covurlui county; it included several villages and bordered on the Siret river with its meadows and forests. Its memory survives in the name of the present-day village of Brăniştea.

Quite a number of preserves belonged to various monasteries, bishop sees or the metropolitan see<sup>6</sup>. Boyars' preserves are often mentioned in 16th century deeds<sup>7</sup>. We also come across freeholders as owners of preserves<sup>8</sup>.

We will quote now an interesting deed of 23 April 1772 regarding preserves in a Transylvanian village: "I, Todor, mayor of Poiana Mărului, together with all the villagers give this our deed... into the hands of our lord Dumitrache to the effect that we engage most earnestly henceforth no longer to cut wood in that forest but will hold it to be a preserve." And should they cut wood therein "unknown to the lord of the manor", they bound themselves "not only to pay for the damage done, but also to pay a fine, in accordance with the laws of the land."<sup>9</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> *D.R.H.*, B, I, p. 416.

<sup>3</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, 16th century, vol. I, p. 191.

<sup>4</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, 16th century, vol. V, p. 379.

<sup>5</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, 14th–15th centuries, vol. I, p. 37, 255, 290, 318, 501.

<sup>6</sup> *D.R.H.*, B, vol. I, p. 70–71, 75–76; *D.I.R.*, B, 16th century, vol. II, p. 130, 169–170; vol. III, p. 122; vol. V, p. 424; vol. VI, p. 28 etc.; *D.I.R.*, A, 16th century, vol. II, p. 156–157; vol. XXI, p. 98, 478, 482.

<sup>7</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, 16th century: vol. I, p. 60, 114; vol. II, p. 249, 250; vol. V, p. 428; vol. VI, p. 3, 308; *D.R.H.B.*, vol. XXII, p. 34.

<sup>8</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, vol. XXI, p. 191.

<sup>9</sup> Iorga, *Romanian Acts*, p. 34–35.

Forest preserves had existed in Transylvania time out of mind, as shown by the records mentioning the forest guards watching over them. Thus in a document dated 1181 mention is made of two forest guards on the Tur estate and one on the Cheke estate, between the rivers Someș and Tisa<sup>10</sup>. In the Făgăraș land there were many forests preserves made up not only of beeches and oaks — where pigs were kept for fattening —, but also of fir-trees<sup>11</sup>.

It is after the many preserves scattered over various parts of the country that a number of villages have been named. The statistical map of 1835 records a “Braniștea” in Dimbovița county<sup>12</sup> with 125 homesteads, a “Braniști” in Dolj county with 43 homesteads, a “Braniștea” with 53 homesteads in Vlașca county, a Șerbești-Braniștea in Covurlui county and a “Braniști” in Mehedinți county with 108 homesteads. A charter issued by Prince Petru Rareș in 1529 mentions the village of Brănișteri<sup>13</sup>.



We should point out that *braniște* used to designate also two fiscal obligations.

One referred to the Iași townspeople's duty to cart the hay of the prince's preserve at Bohotin. A document of 20 December 1700 mentions the *braniște* carts, though other documents use only the abbreviated form *braniște*. In actual fact this duty was incumbent not only on the Iași population but also on other townspeople. On 28 December 1756, Prince Constantin Racoviță exempted the servants of the Roman bishop see from various duties among which that “of collecting preserve tax for the Equerry in the boroughs.”<sup>14</sup> This duty may have been converted into a tax in cash, for it being “collected,” like all taxes, points to this conclusion.

The second obligation is the tax on cellars, that is on drinks, as shown in a document of 30 July 1718, whereby Prince Mihail Racoviță exempts from taxation a cellar of the Iași Jesuits. He

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<sup>10</sup> D.I.R., C, 11th, 12th, 13th centuries, vol. I, p. 8.

<sup>11</sup> Urbartu, p. 51—52.

<sup>12</sup> Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 222, 225, 246.

<sup>13</sup> Iorga, *Studies and Documents*, vol VI, p. 151. Today there are villages named Braniștea in the counties of Argeș, Bistrița-Năsăud, Dimbovița, Dolj and Galați.

<sup>14</sup> Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, III, 2, p. 703.

consequently issued orders to this effect to those whose duty it was "to collect the wine tax, the lease tax, the aurochs tax, the preserve tax, the tax on the Aga land and other taxes levied on the cellars here in Iași."<sup>15</sup> Another Moldavian document, dated 1769, shows that the tax on cellars amounted to 3 lei per cask<sup>16</sup>. Why should the term *braniște* be used for a tax on spirits? That is not a question easy to answer. Supposedly, publicans, like all other townspeople, were at first required to provide *braniște* carts, but later it was agreed that the afore-mentioned obligation should be turned into a tax on spirits, which preserved, however, the old name.

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<sup>15</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 670.

<sup>16</sup> "Arhiva Românească," I, 1860, p. 149.



## THE MOST IMPORTANT FORESTS MENTIONED IN HISTORICAL SOURCES

*"Vlașca" and "Vlăstă", age-old names, are  
peremptory proofs of the continuity of the Romantic  
element in the Wallachian plain.*

This chapter lists the names of the most important forests recorded on Romanian territory. Maps are a source of information in this respect<sup>1</sup>, and so are the documents, chronicles, and accounts given by various travellers.

To begin with, here is some information on our forests in general. In 1573 Blaise de Vigenère, a Frenchman, described Moldavia as follows: "It is a mountainous wooded country and consequently very powerful and difficult [to travel over]."<sup>2</sup> Travelling over Wallachia in 1641, the Italian merchant Bartolomeo Locadello noticed "vast plains and endless forests,"<sup>3</sup> while Franz Sulzer, the Swiss secretary of Prince Alexandru Ipsilanti (1774–1762), pointed out that "the banks of the navigable rivers in Wallachia and even those of the Danube are covered with forests of such good species that their trees, which are as high as masts, not only facilitate shipbuilding in the country, but might also constitute an excellent branch of commerce."<sup>4</sup> Finally, from information provided by the book of Raicevich, an Austrian consul, we learn about Wallachian forests: "Everywhere, in the plains as well as in the valleys and in the mountains, there are very tall trees most useful for the requirements of society. The most important is the oak, which is of the best variety, and which is of good use in shipbuilding and in the making of all things requiring strong, compact wood. Some oaks are two or three feet in diameter<sup>5</sup>; they are quite straight and of gigantic height."<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> See also p. 61–74.

<sup>2</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, II, p. 641.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibidem*, V, p. 34.

<sup>4</sup> Sulzer, *Geschichte des transalpinischen Daciens*, III, Vienna, 1782, p. 442–443.

<sup>5</sup> A French foot is 0.324839 m. Those oaks were, therefore, of some 65 or 67 cm in diameter.

<sup>6</sup> *Voyage*, p. 17–18.

**Wallachia.** The precise site of the dark forests on the left bank of the Danube that caused the Roman general Caius Scribonius Curio, conqueror of the Dardanians, to withdraw, is not known. On the contrary, it is very likely that the defeat of the other Roman general, Cornelius Fuscus, during the reign of Decebalus, should have taken place in the forests of Wallachia or Oltenia, more precisely, in the valley of the Olt or of the Jiu. The names *Vlașca* and *Vlășia* can be traced back to the time when Daco-Romans coinhabited with the Slavs. While scholars unanimously agree on the meaning of *Vlașca* (the Romanians' country), opinions are divided as regards *Vlășia*: some contend that it is derived, like *Vlașca*, from *Vlach* (Romanian)<sup>7</sup>, while others connect it with the Slav *les* (forest), by way of the term *v les*, which means "in the forest."<sup>8</sup> The latter etymology does not seem to me to be well founded. Yet, one thing is certain: *Vlășia* is an old name, the oldest name of a forest not only in Wallachia, but also all over Romanian territory. It designated the vast forest north of Bucharest<sup>9</sup> which, during the Phanariot period (1716—1821) had become the dreaded shelter of highway men and outlaws. This accounts for the old saying "to steal as in the *Vlășia* Forest." It is also from that period that dates the name of "Fintina hoților" (Robbers' Well) and "Valea Comoarei" (Treasure Valley)<sup>10</sup>. What is left of the *Vlășia* Forest (the Căciulați Forest, the ash-trees and oaks in the Academy Park at Căciulați, the Snagov and the Căldărușani Forests, etc.) enables us to build up a picture of the *Vlășia* Forest, such as it was in the 18th century.

A name less old than "*Vlășia*" is that of the extensive forest in Teleorman meaning "mad [large] forest." The name, as already shown, was devised by the Petcheneg-Cuman migratory populations during their long co-inhabitation (ca. 900—1241) with our forebears. The memory of the old forest is preserved in the name "*Pădurețu*" designating a small landed estate in Teleorman county — recorded in a document of 5 August 1836<sup>11</sup> — and in the names of some villages (two "*Pădurești*" and one "*Pădurești*").

The name of the "Brazda" Forest between Tîmpenii de Sus and Mierlești in Olt county is most interesting as it comes from

<sup>7</sup> See above p. 21

<sup>8</sup> See Iordan, *Romanian Toponymy*, p. 305.

<sup>9</sup> For the area of the *Vlășia* Forest, see the document of January, 1803, in Urechia, *History of the Romanians*, XI, p. 96.

<sup>10</sup> The two toponyms were pointed out to me by Dr. Th. Bălănică, as being found on the territory of the present-day silvicultural experimental station and of the dendrological gardens at the kilometer 31,200 on the Bucharest—Ploiești road.

<sup>11</sup> *The High Divan 1831—1847*, Bucharest, 1958, p. 168, no. 631.

“Brazda lui Novac,” which runs through it. This former Roman vallum from the time of Constantine the Great starts on the bank of the Danube in Mehedinți county heading eastward through many forests. There it has been preserved far better than on ploughed land where it had been very nearly levelled up. In Mehedinți county it runs through the Dobra Forest and also through the New Forest; in Dolj county it makes its way through the forests of Știubei, Tufanul Popii, Terpezița, Teiș, Episcopia and Schitul, and in Olt county through the Piscopia Forest and along the southern edge of the Călugăreasca Forest. In our opinion, at least some of these forests did not exist at the time when the vallum was raised, for earthworks could not have been of much use in the thick of the woods where visibility was poor, if not nil, and a surprise attack was always possible. Those forests must have grown during the centuries that followed Constantine the Great’s reign. And the same applies to the Scrioștea Forest in Teleorman, crossed by *limes transalutanus*<sup>12</sup>, that Roman vallum that starts on the bank of the Danube east of the Olt and runs north — north-east to reach Rucăr in the Carpathians.

Two forest names are recorded in Mircea the Old’s time (1386–1418): Brădetul in Argeș county (also the name of a hermitage founded by the voivode and his wife Mara<sup>13</sup> and “the Great Forest” in Vlașca, west of the river Argeș facing Bucșani, sheltering Annunciation Monastery. At Tîrgoviște, on 23 August 1437, Vlad Dracul confirmed the title of this monastery, which already existed during the reign of his father, Mircea the Old, to half of Bolintin village<sup>14</sup>. There was no longer such a monastery in the second half of the 17th century, but the villages of Bucșani and Bolintin — the latter is in a fair position to become a town — still exist today. Only a portion of the Great Forest — which was part of the vast forests of Vlașca county — still exists<sup>15</sup>. During the first half of the 16th century, a chronicle mentions a forest near Craiova, west of the Jiu, with “stags and other big game.” It was on the occasion of a hunt in that forest that Prince Vlad Vintilă of Slatina was perfidiously killed in 1535<sup>16</sup>. The forest may have been continued by that of Bucovăț Monastery, made up of oak and beech, whose existence is recorded in an unpublished document of 19 June 1779. We are therein told that “the

<sup>12</sup> See Tudor, *Roman Oltenia*, p. 238, 252–255, 262.

<sup>13</sup> Glurescu, *History of the Romanians*, I, fifth edition, p. 494–495.

<sup>14</sup> I. Ionașcu, *Age of the Monastery in the Great Forest at Bolintin*, in *Revista Istorică Română*, VII (1937), p. 323–336.

<sup>15</sup> See p. 68.

<sup>16</sup> Popescu, *Histories*, p. 45.



servants of the boyars and of the Craiova Ban fell of acorns and beech nuts the forest which stretches... on either side of the river Jiu" and which is the property of the afore-mentioned monastery<sup>17</sup>.

In 1632, Paul Strassburgh, the envoy of the Swedish king Gustavus Adolphus en route to Constantinople was received by Prince Leon of Wallachia and made a halt at Văcărești. During the feast, passages at arms and knightly contests were in progress, "trumpets and drums echoing in the near-by woods and in the neighbouring forest."<sup>18</sup> The name of the forest is not given, but it is not unlikely that it should have been called "Codrul Văcăreștilor", just as several decades later, in the second half of the 17th century, documents mention the forests of Grozăvești, Cotroceni and Lupești. Those were extensive oak forests whose stately trees had thick trunks and rich crowns — genuine voivodes of the woods. It was in the Cotroceni forest that Prince Șerban Cantacuzino erected Cotroceni monastery in 1679. It was in a glade of that same forest that St. Elefterie church was erected in 1744; and again in that forest did the young sons of Prince Alexandru Ipsilanti find a spring which they impounded and which was thereafter named the "Fountain of the Beizade."<sup>19</sup> The Cotroceni Forest reaches as far as the Dîmbovița meadow on the right bank of the river; the lovely nook of St. Elefterie with giant oaks, gardens and vineyards, was one of the favourite haunts of the Bucharesters at the beginning of the 19th century according to Ludwig von Stürmer<sup>20</sup>. Unfortunately, the oaks were felled by 1835 and Ulysse de Marsillac, a foreigner in love with Bucharest, deplored this fact. Procopoaia's copse on the left bank of the Dîmbovița was much smaller; it stretched between the Earthen Road [*Podul de Pămînt*], the present-day Plevna Road, and the river, up to the place where the Faculty of Law stands today<sup>21</sup>. Its name came from its owner, a lady whose one-storey house could still be seen on the Earthen Road at the close of the 19th century.

Another favourite haunt of the Bucharesters at the end of the Phanariot period was Herăstrău Copse, whose name points to the existence of a sawmill [*herăstrău*], undoubtedly driven by the river Colentina, where the trees of the neighbouring forests were turned into planks, laths, flooring, slats and other kinds of sawn timber.

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<sup>17</sup> State Archives, Bucharest, ms. 443, f. 206.

<sup>18</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, V, p. 65.

<sup>19</sup> Glurescu, *History of Bucharest*, p. 21.

<sup>20</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 390.

<sup>21</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 23.

The Hermit's Wood was farther off east of Bucharest, on the shore of the Pasărea pond facing Pasărea monastery. Its name undoubtedly came from a hermit that had built his lonely abode in the heart of the forest.

A document dated 22 February 1697, during the reign of Constantin Brâncoveanu, mentions the woods of Cîmpulung, Măţău, Rucăr and Dragoslavele, which supplied masts to the shipyards in Giurgiu<sup>22</sup>. The timber was mostly transported down the river Dimboviţa, but some of it was also carted. In winter, when the Dimboviţa froze over, sledges were used<sup>23</sup>.

A report sent in December 1727 during the Austrian occupation of Oltenia by administrator Tige to the War Council of Vienna, provides interesting information on the Polovragi Wood in Gorj county. Describing the forest and its thick and stately trees, Tige relates that the local people call it *Romani* for, as tradition would have it, it had been sown by the Romans<sup>24</sup>. Nothing prevents us from accepting the tradition as well founded. In connection with contemporary history, the Mărgineanca oak forest (Prahova county) is well worth mentioning as on 30–31 August 1944, victorious battles were fought here against the Nazis<sup>25</sup>.



By the end of the 18th century, when official quarters for the first time took steps designed to protect and spare forests, documents became more numerous. Thus on 5 September 1795, an ordinance was issued to protect the Poiana Copse (on the bank of the river Ialomiţa west of Slobozia), forbidding tree felling<sup>26</sup>. Other deeds also mention "Pădurea Cloşani" (1818), "Pădurea Rîioasa" north-west of Bucharest (1835) as well as "Pădurea Ciuta" (Buzău county) "Pădurea Corbi" (Argeş county), and "Pădurea Domnească" (Dimboviţa county)<sup>27</sup>.

Though no forests are named, the comments of two foreigners in the first half of the 19th century are sufficient proof of the vast expanse and of the beauty of the forests of Wallachia and Moldavia. The Frenchman Bois le Comte, who resided in our country for a time at the beginning of the period of the *Règlement Organique*, wrote

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<sup>22</sup> Iorga, *Studies, and Documents*, V, p. 374.

<sup>23</sup> *Register*, p. 192.

<sup>24</sup> Constantin Giurescu, p. 215; cf. vol. I, p. 381. A. Armbruster (*The Romanity of the Romanians*, Bucharest, 1972, p. 224, note 28) accepts this tradition.

<sup>25</sup> Tucă, *Inscription on Stone*, p. 60.

<sup>26</sup> Urechia, *History of the Romanians*, VI, p. 380.

<sup>27</sup> Drimbă, Tudor Vladimirescu, p. 587; Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 222, 224 and 245; *The Great Geographical Dictionary*, VI, Bucharest, 1901, p. 647.

in a memorial dated 11 May 1834: "The mountains of Wallachia yield... building timber in large quantities. Forests which at home [i.e. in France] take up only the seventh part of the territory, here take up a third of it. According to an incomplete and altogether partial estimation made by the Russians, there is a nearly equal number of oaks and firs suitable for marine requirements over a given area."<sup>28</sup> Guérout, the French consul in Iași, wrote to Lamar-tine, minister at the time, on 12 April 1848: "All the area bordering on the mountains is covered with magnificent forests, which are made up of the varieties best suited to the requirements of the navy and of the building trade, such as oaks, firs and ashes."

In the Prahova valley, between Bușteni and Azuga, there was a place called "Codru Adînc" (Deep Forest). As local tradition has it, Pletea, the outlaw, lay in wait there for the waggons and merchants that travelled to and from Brașov. Today there is a place named "Pletea's Glade" at the foot of the mountain<sup>29</sup>. Finally, we mention "Lunca frumoasă" (the Fine Riverside Grove) not far from Pîrscov in Buzău county, which was to be leased together with the Pîrscov estate in 1862<sup>30</sup>.

Transylvania is not only "the country beyond the forest," viz. the forests in the Apuseni Mountains with their northern and southern outcrops; it is also a wooded land for a goodly part. The multitude of woods covering the surrounding mountains and the hills has been noticed by a number of foreign travellers. In 1583 the Frenchman Jacques Bongars passing through the towns of Turda, Alba-Iulia, Sibiu, Făgăraș and Brașov, on his way from the Someș district wrote: "Transylvania is a province rich in wine and grain; it is hilly all over, the hills being surrounded by high mountains and forests, as if by a parapet."<sup>31</sup> In *Geografia cioè Descrittione della Terra*, which came out in Venice in 1598, the Italian Giovanni Antonio Magini states: Transylvania "has large forests and endless woods in which aurochs, buffaloes, elks and 'capricorns,' stags of immense size, lynxes, martens... , unusual bears, ... wild peacocks, wood hens and wood cocks are to be found."<sup>32</sup>

In the early 13th century, in the south of Transylvania there stretched a vast forest named the Forest of the Romanians and of the Petchenegs (*Sylva Blacorum et Bissenorum*)<sup>33</sup>. There is a

<sup>28</sup> Hurmuzaki, *Documents*, XVII, p. 338–339.

<sup>29</sup> The information has been supplied by Adrian Ghinescu of Poiana Țapului.

<sup>30</sup> "Monitorul jurnal oficial" of February 22nd 1862, p. 166.

<sup>31</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, III, p. 159.

<sup>32</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, IV, p. 584.

<sup>33</sup> See the document of 1224 in *D.I.R.*, G, vol. I, p. 209.



striking parallelism here to the Vlaşca and Teleorman forests south of the Carpathians; in Transylvania as well there was a wooded district inhabited by Romanians; here, too, the ancient Turkish people — the Petchenegs — had got used to forest life, as they had in Teleorman.

The documents of the royal Hungarian chancellery record a number of names of forests in the 12th–16th centuries, most of them in Hungarian, some with Romanian equivalents, or even translated from the Romanian<sup>34</sup>. Thus, in 1181 records mention “the long forest” (*ad longam silvam*) in the river Someş district, and in ca. 1202–1203 “the forest named Silvaş” in Tirnave district. Two beech forests are mentioned: one in 1223 — “the beech forest named Nogebyk close to the Arpaş river”— and another in 1228 — “the beech forest named Madadbiki” — in the deed determining the boundaries of the Suplac estate. The diploma issued by King Andrew II in 1231 makes mention of a very extensive forest named Keykus. “Most of that forest stretches between the two rivers [Lăpuş and Someş] and another part lies by the river Someş, towards the Ardud forest.” The latter forest was an immense oak forest where thousands of boars were fattened, as stated in 16th century documents. Another diploma issued by King Andrew in 1231 mentions “a forest called Finteus.” The Maramureş Forest is first mentioned in a diploma of December 1271 whereby King Stephen confirms the privileges of the *hospites* in the village of Kirihaşa close to the river Tisa in Ugocea county. It is therein stated among other things: “We have also allowed them to fish for any kind of fish in the Tisa, from the boundary of their land to the strongholds of the Maramureş Forest.”<sup>35</sup> Documents of the 14th century write about “the Big Black Forest” of Maramureş, meaning a big fir forest. In a document dated 3 June 1448, Iancu of Hunedoara, the governor of the country, bestows on Mihail, son of Tatu, and on Bogdan of Jalova, for their gallantry in the battles fought against the Turks, the estates of Crăciuneşti, Bocicou and Lunca, including their appurtenances, namely “fields, whether tilled or untilled, pasture land, forests, and especially the Black Forest.”<sup>36</sup> When the boundaries of the Borşa estate were established on 20 June 1450, one of the landmarks was “the big forest called the Black Forest.”<sup>37</sup>

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<sup>34</sup> D.I.R., C, 11th–13th centuries, vol. I, p. 7, 21, 200, 234, 252.

<sup>35</sup> *Ibidem*, vol. II, p. 145.

<sup>36</sup> Mihaly, *Maramureş Diplomas*, p. 335.

<sup>37</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 351–352: *inter magnas silvas Feketheerdew nominatus*.

A document of 30 March 1296 setting forth the boundaries of Gîmbuș land in Luduș district, reads: "at the upper end of the forest named Ana."<sup>38</sup> Another "long forest" situated near the village of Minărade not far from Blaj, is mentioned in a document dated 13 July 1347 which establishes the boundaries of the village of Sincel<sup>39</sup>. No less than three forests, namely the "Old Forest," the "Beech Forest" and the "Border Forest," are mentioned in the document of 5 August 1347 establishing the boundaries of the village of Diviciori in the neighbourhood of Gherla, in Cluj county. At a suit tried on 1 April 1515 by the governor of Făgăraș, "an oak forest" is said to exist "between the boundaries of the same property of Zwnyogzeg, which also bears another name: "Stejari" (the Romanian for oaks)<sup>40</sup>.

In June 1583, the Frenchman Bongars described his journey east of Făgăraș: "I went on for a league through forests. I slept at Șercaia, a borough of the Brașov people," then "for three good leagues through forests and over mountains named the Șercaia Forest."<sup>41</sup>

A 17th century document mentions another famous forest after which mountains are named, at 50 kilometres' distance from Oradea: it is "Pădurea Craiului" (the King's Forest)<sup>42</sup>. This name may be compared with "Virful lui Crai" (the King's Peak), a mountain in the Southern Carpathians in Prahova county, and with the splendid "Piatra Craiului" (the King's Rock), in the same Carpathians.

Constantin Brâncoveanu, Prince of Wallachia, owned a beech forest in the village of Berivoi and a lovely oak forest at Șomartin (Cincul Mare), both of them in the Făgăraș Land<sup>43</sup>.

A Transylvanian forest reminiscent of the end of Horea and Cloșca, leaders of the peasant uprising of 1784, is "Codrul Scorăgetului" in the Albac Mountains, not far from the river Someș. Having withdrawn to a hiding-place in the heart of the forest at the beginning of the winter of 1784 with the intention of resuming their campaign in spring, the two leaders were caught by the empe-

<sup>38</sup> D.I.R., C, 13th century, vol. II, p. 420—421.

<sup>39</sup> D.I.R., C, 14th century, vol. IV, p. 378—379, 387—390.

<sup>40</sup> Hurmuzaki—Iorga, *Documents*, XV, 1, p. 228.

<sup>41</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, III, p. 159.

<sup>42</sup> I. Pușcaș and Virgil Maxim, *An Unkown Work on the History of Transylvania in the mid-17th Century*, in "Revista Arhivelor", vol. XXXIV, 1, Bucharest, 1972, p. 136.

<sup>43</sup> M. Sotrone, *Sidelights on the Relations between Wallachia and Transylvania during the reign of Constantin Brncoveanu*, in "Studii și Comunicări", 14, Sibiu, 1969, p. 375.

ror's soldiers led thither by traitors tempted by the 300-ducats reward <sup>44</sup>.

In the Crasna county there spread a vast forest which in 1785–1786 was being used by the serfs of villages who named it 'the Forest' and sometimes the 'Copper Forest' <sup>45</sup>.

The most extensive forests, as compared to the total area, were to be found in Maramureş. In 1773, the Austrian administration set up five forestry centres, settlers being brought over from Zips for the purpose. In 1900, the Maramureş forests took up 55 per cent of the county's area <sup>46</sup>.

The forests of the territory belonging to the former frontier guards' regiment at Năsăud also spread over large areas, for example the forest belonging to Poiana Ilvei commune, previously named Sîniosif. In 1868, the villagers owned jointly forests whose area totalled 2,974 'iugăre' (1 iugăr = 0.5775 ha) 920 square 'stinjeni.'

From among the forests of our days we mention the Dărnău Forest in the basin of the Bîsca Mare river, a spruce and fir forest peopled by big game <sup>47</sup>; near Blaj, the Cărbunari Forest made up of oak and beech <sup>48</sup> and the Meteheia oak forest; the Săcuieul spruce forest not far from the Lăpuşna spring <sup>49</sup> and the Răzoare Forest between Sfintu Gheorghe and Miercurea Ciuc, on the verge of which battles were fought on 7 September 1944 <sup>50</sup>.

Finally, we mention the Mocear Forest in the neighbourhood of Reghin, remarkable for the age of its trees, more than 300 of which are between 655 and 725 years old <sup>51</sup>.

In Banat there have always been vast forests: the 88,668 ha, now part of Reşiţa domains <sup>52</sup>, the forests of the Almaş, Semenice and Poiana Ruscăi Mountains, the forests of the Banat frontier guards'fund — just like the frontier guards'fund in Bistriţa-Năsăud district — and finally the Iron Gate area forest, rich in sub-Mediterranean

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<sup>44</sup> See Nicolae Densuşianu, *Horta's Revolution in Transylvania and Hungary, 1784–1785*, Bucharest, 1884, p. 412–418.

<sup>45</sup> Liviu Botezan, *Contributions to the Study of the Agrarian Problems in the Transylvania County during the 1785–1820 Period*, doctor's thesis, ms., 1970, p. 133.

<sup>46</sup> Al. Filipaşcu, *The History of Maramureş*, Bucharest, 1940, p. 154; Popa, *Maramureş*, p. 36.

<sup>47</sup> It was here that a capital stag was shot in 1933 "Carpaţii" I, (1933), 12, p. 37.

<sup>48</sup> Ionel Pop, *The Wicked Fairies' Glade*, Bucharest, 1974, p. 68.

<sup>49</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 174–175.

<sup>50</sup> Tucă, *op. cit.*, p. 113–119.

<sup>51</sup> Petre Mihail Băcanu, in "România Liberă" of July 22nd 1973, p. 5.

<sup>52</sup> See *Monograph of the Forests of the Joint Stock Company of the Reşiţa Iron Works and Domains*, Oraviţa, 1924, 38 p. in 16°.



anean species : yew and wild vine <sup>53</sup>, as well as flowering ash, lilac, *Carpinus orientalis* and Turkish filberts.

**Moldavia.** If the etymology of the word Moldova suggested by a number of philologists were correct (derivation from *molid* (spruce) + *ova* <sup>54</sup>) the very name of this land would refer us to the evergreen forests that covered the mountains and the northern areas of the country. Furthermore, the legendary hunting of the aurochs by the founder of the state, Prince Dragoș, again refers us to the vast Moldavian forests abounding in big game <sup>55</sup>.

The first records mentioning old oak forests go back to the reign of Alexander the Good <sup>56</sup>. Beech forests were designated by the old term of *bucovine* <sup>57</sup>. The Treaty of Lublau of 1412 mentioned *bucovine* in the north of the country <sup>58</sup>. In his Chronicle of Moldavia and Wallachia, Miron Costin has a subchapter on the rivers springing in the beech forests of Moldavia, tributaries of the Siret and of the Prut, such as the Birlad, the Vaslui, the Ialan and the Simila <sup>59</sup>.

When dealing with the battles fought in the shelter of forests, we mentioned the Crasna High Forest, where Prince Bogdan, Stephen the Great's father, won a brilliant victory in 1450. During Stephen's reign mention is made of "the Great Riverside Woods" of the Siret in the Lower Country, which was reached by a Wallachian army allied to the Turks in 1481 <sup>60</sup>. The victory won in the Cosmin Forest in 1497 is described by the Polish chronicler A. Guagnin, who states that while King John Albert's army was making its way through a thick forest named long ago "bucovină", where the trees had been cut by the Moldavians nearly through so that they might fall at the slightest impact, that army had been attacked and cut down, also losing a great many prisoners <sup>61</sup>. "Dumbrava Roșie" (The Red Oak Forest) at Cotnari is mentioned not only by Neculce, who also writes about the other "Red Forests" of Botoșani and Roman, but also in a deed dated 1673, whereby Gheorghe the Old sells a

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<sup>53</sup> I.Z. Lupe, Șt. Purcean, V. Leandru, in *The Iron Gate Complex Atlas*, Bucharest, 1973, p. 166.

<sup>54</sup> Iordan, *Romanian Toponymy*, p. 478.

<sup>55</sup> *Slavo-Romanian Chronicles*, p. 159—160 and Grigore Ureche's *Chronicle of Moldavia*, p. 6.

<sup>56</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, vol. I, p. 31.

<sup>57</sup> Costăchescu, *Moldavian Documents*, I, p. 233—235, 317.

<sup>58</sup> See Hurmuzaki—Desușianu, *Documents*, I, 2, p. 485.

<sup>59</sup> Costin, *Works*, p. 216.

<sup>60</sup> Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, II, p. 71.

<sup>61</sup> *Cronica Sarmatiae Europae*, Cracow, 1611, p. 115—116.

plot of land for a bee-garden "in the Bee-garden Valley below Dumbrava Roșie and lower than the bee-garden of Master Frincu." <sup>62</sup>

The Tigheciu High Forest is first mentioned in 1532. At Vaslui on 28 February, Petru Rareș confirmed the title of Duma and Ioan's granddaughters, namely Safta and Marena, to their estate, for which they had a charter from Ștefan the Young, "two parts of the site of the village of Cociurihani at the end of the Chigheciu Forest," along the old boundaries used "from time immemorial." It is after this forest that "Chigheaci county" was named, mentioned in two documents dated 11 May 1546 and 5 April 1548 <sup>63</sup>. In his "Polish Poem," Miron Costin relates that the district had been taken by the Turks, only a small part of it being left to Moldavia, namely "the beech forest." <sup>64</sup> More details about the Tigheciu Forest are given by Miron Costin in his *Chronicle* and by Dimitrie Cantemir in his *Descriptio Moldaviae*. Cantemir believes that within Tigheciu county there had been a "republic," i.e. a pre-state formation, similar to those existing in Vrancea and Cimpulung <sup>65</sup>. From the military point of view, the Tigheciu people took orders from the "Forest Captain," mentioned in the Ghica Chronicle under the year 1729, who resided in the borough of Fălciu <sup>66</sup>.

The Tigheciu Forest is clearly shown on F.L. Güssefeld's map "Charte von der Moldau und Walachey," printed in Nürnberg in 1785. The length of the forest, stretching from north-east to south-east, is of approximately 60 kilometres. On a Greek map of Moldavia printed in Vienna in 1804, the forest appears somewhat different <sup>67</sup>.

The Tigheciu forest is also mentioned by Neculce on the occasion of a movement of the Tartars in the Bugeac, which began in October 1727. Grigore Ghica, Prince of Moldavia, with his army, helped to put down the revolt. Having left Iași, he crossed the wood at Scînteia, went through Fălciu, and crossed the river Prut. "And they made their way to the Chigheciu Forest, and camped there for two or three weeks... and as long as they camped in the forest, the whole army had hay and grains provided by the Tartars. And on departing, they raised a great mound in the forest as a remem-

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<sup>62</sup> Gh. Ungureanu, Gh. Anghel, G. Botez, *The Colnart Chronicle*, Bucharest, 1971, p. 51.

<sup>63</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, 16th century, p. 340–341, 499, 571.

<sup>64</sup> Costin, *Works*, p. 240.

<sup>65</sup> *Descriptio Moldaviae*, p. 111, p. 302–303.

<sup>66</sup> *The Ghica Chronicle*, p. 307. See also Melchisedec, *Chronicle of Huși*, p. 47–48, 254–255.

<sup>67</sup> *M.C.*, f. 151.

brance.”<sup>68</sup> The Ghica Chronicle adds thereto: “And the inhabitants of the Tigheciu Forest, seeing that the Great Vizir and the Khan had drawn near with their armies, went to the Khan without further delay and did obeisance, and thus were neither robbed nor enslaved.” The mound in the forest was named Grigore Ghica’s Mound, the Ghica Chronicle further states<sup>69</sup>.

It was during Petru Rareș’ reign that the existence of “the Great Forest” (*Codrul cel Mare*) was recorded; beginning in the north of the Covurlui and the west of Tecuci counties, stretching all over the former Horincea county and on towards the north over Tutova county to far beyond Birlad. It was with good reason that it has been named “the Great Forest.”

In 1585 the Frenchman François de Pavie, lord of Fourquevaux, crossed Moldavia on his way from Cetatea Albă to Iași by way of Țuțora. This is what he relates: “Furthermore, the forests offered at night no less pleasant shooting of wild boars and bears, which we lay in wait for high in the trees with our arquebuses which each of us had procured at Creman [Akkerman]. And if we made a halt near the forest, we would light a big fire in a circle, in the middle of which we placed our waggon with ourselves lying beneath on our mattresses.”<sup>70</sup>

A big forest in the north — perhaps south of Hotin, perhaps the Orhei Forest — is mentioned in 1587 by a member of a Hungarian deputation on their way from Suceava to Russia. Having crossed the river [the Prut], a member of the deputation writes: “we were faced by a very big forest which we had to go through; but because that forest was greatly to be feared partly on account of the Cossacks, partly on account of the Tartars, and partly on account of the Romanians, who sided neither with the former nor with the latter . . .,” the deputation procured a guard of five local people, and being all well armed, they went through the forest and reached the other bank of the Dniester in safety<sup>71</sup>.

A precise indication dating from the reign of Vasile Lupu concerns Soroca county. On 17 September 1646, the prince confirmed Golia Monastery’s title to its property, among other things: “to the village of Ceresnovăț, with places for bee-gardens and hayfields, and with orchards, and with a grove that is named Ceresnovăț.”<sup>72</sup>

<sup>68</sup> Neculce, *Chronicle of Moldavia*, p. 306–307.

<sup>69</sup> *The Ghica Chronicle*, p. 107, 277.

<sup>70</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, III, p. 181.

<sup>71</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 217.

<sup>72</sup> Paul Mihail, *Other Romanian Acts from Constantinople (1578–1820)*, II, in “Anuarul Institutului de Istorie și Arheologie”, IX (1972), p. 459.



The Charter of 8 January 1648 issued by Vasile Lupu to Dobromira Monastery is of importance for the forests, clearings and preserves of Putna and Vrancea, as well as for the toponymy of those regions.

In Putna county there was a big oak forest on the Odobești Hill. That forest covered most of the hill, with vineyards at its foot, sheltering a number of hermitages — Babele, Buluc, Tarnița, Scinteia, Căpătanul — as well as Miera Monastery. It is important on account of toponymy, for documents mention an “Aurochs Tableland”<sup>73</sup> and it was, moreover, a place of refuge in times of affliction.

Miron Costin’s *Chronicle* mentions the Căpotești Forests west of Iași. When the Tartars, together with the Cossacks, overran the country in 1651, Vasile Lupu sent his lady together with the boyards’ households to Neamț Citadel through the forest outcrops by way of Căpotești. “And he himself did not for many days hold the throne, but moved from Iași to the clearings of a forest which is named the Căpotești Forest, and settled in that forest with his court.”<sup>74</sup>

It was also west of Iași, before the river Moldova, that the Moțca Forest stretched. Like the Vlășia Forest of Wallachia, the Moțca Forest had become the lair of brigands and thieves at the end of the Phanariot period and during the first half of the 19th century. Another vast forest at the time of Vasile Lupu was the Ghenghea Forest in Tutova county<sup>75</sup>.

The Hîrlău Forest, named after the Hîrlău borough, was one of the most extensive in Moldavia<sup>76</sup>. In the 17th century potash was made there by the smouldering combustion of certain varieties of trees. In *Descriptio Moldaviae*<sup>77</sup>, Dimitrie Cantemir writes about “the very thick forests” in the western part of Fălciu county. The men sent by him had come across the “foundations of some walls and towers of burnt brick.”

The Iași forest stretched south of the town for dozens of miles up to Vaslui county. As it sheltered Birnova Monastery, founded by Prince Miron Barnovski (1626—1629), it was also called the Birnova Forest. An account made by a foreign traveller who crossed this immense forest has been preserved : “Having left Vaslui on the 12th

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<sup>73</sup> Glurescu, *Odobești*, p. 28.

<sup>74</sup> Costin, *Works*, p. 133, 175.

<sup>75</sup> State Archives, the Adam Monastery, parcel II, Document no. 5; *Catalogue of Moldavian Documents*, II, p. 434, no. 2262.

<sup>76</sup> See also p. 70.

<sup>77</sup> *Descriptio Moldaviae*, p. 77.

[of December 1612],” he relates, “I proceeded farther in pouring rain; I got into a great forest where I spent the night, travelling on with a high wind blowing and much rain. On the 13th, which was St. Lucy’s day, we went on through the afore-said forest, which is very big; the roads are very bad so that not even six pair of oxen could draw the cart; we were in that forest all through the night without anything to eat and greatly frightened by the wolves, which howled fearfully. On the 14th we travelled on. In the evening we got out and halted for the night on the verge of that forest.”<sup>78</sup> Yet another description of that forest dating from 12 October 1652, reads: “We went through a splendid forest of stately trees, with undergrowth, shaded by branches spread out in a grand canopy, with bowers of various shapes as if arranged by man’s hand and not by nature, and watered by many springs; the whole was well fitted for the abode of hermits withdrawn into forests.”<sup>79</sup>

When dealing with the reign of Prince Petriceicu in his *Chronicle*, Ion Neculce mentions two forests in the north of Moldavia, one south of the Prut between the villages of Tătărașeni and Iubănești and the borough of Cernăuți, the other north of the Prut, more precisely between Hotin and the village of Toporăuți.

It is also from Neculce that we learn about the Herța Forest in the neighbourhood of Herța borough. Relating the boyars’ flight from the country during the last reign of Gheorghe Duca in 1681, the chronicler writes: “It was then that many boyars, whether holding office or not, fled to other countries in fear of him so that their homes were left empty. High Steward Tudosie Dubău fled one night from the borough of Iași, to the Polish country. And so did High Boyar Savin Zmucilă and his brother, Chamberlain Gheorghită. And the beaters sent after them overtook them in the Herța Forest and fought against them but could do them no harm.” The same chronicler also mentions a “Dumbrava” in Putna county.

Valuable information is provided by the Swede Erasmus Henry Schneider of Weismantel who resided for some time in Moldavia around 1713–1714. He is in admiration of “the incomparable beech forests” which the Romanians call *bucovine* and which run throughout the country. Apart from beeches, whose number prevails, these forests also include oaks, lime-trees and the loveliest trees bearing apples, pears, plums, cherries, morellos, hazelnuts and cornels<sup>80</sup>.

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<sup>78</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, IV, p. 360–361.

<sup>79</sup> *Ibidem*, V, p. 488.

<sup>80</sup> Text published by N. Iorga in “*Revista Istorică*,” XVI (1930), p. 13.

A French diplomatic report of 11 June 1798 mentions four immense forests yielding timber: the Bicul Forest between the Prut and the Dniester, the Iași Forest, the Herța Forest and the forest in the vicinity of Piatra Neamț.<sup>81</sup> The last one was the main supplier of logs and sawn timber for export as the transport was easy by rafts down the river Bistrița and subsequently down the Siret to Galați whence they made their way to Constantinople and to other foreign ports by way of the Danube and the Black Sea; a great many of the Sultan's ships were built out of Romanian timber<sup>82</sup>.

Part of the Bicul Forest was the Cornești Wood in Lăpușna county, which was famous for its big game.

Extensive forests were also found in Bacău county, such as that of Grozești, Balica and Pralea<sup>83</sup>.

The lowland and hills of Putna county — today Vrancea county — were also covered by a number of forests, where battles were fought in 1917, viz.: Răzoare where a fierce battle was waged on 6 August 1914, Călini and Prisaca. The three forests lie in Mărășești district<sup>84</sup>. Furthermore, there is the vast forest of Anghelești, which begins in Vrancea county and spreads well into Bacău county.

Other forests of Moldavia bound up with historic events are also worth mentioning: Slătioara on the Rarău Mountain, a secular forest and a nature reserve at present; the Baisa Forest towards Botoșani; the Dobrovăț Forest in Vaslui county, with Stephen the Great's ancient monastery; the extensive forest at Ilișești, between Suceava and Păltinoasa in Bucovina, with a handsome motel in the centre.

**Dobrudja.** We could not find the exact location of the pine forest from which the people of Histria got material for their torches<sup>85</sup>, but we suppose it to have been on the Beștepe hills<sup>86</sup>, or possibly on one of the high banks in the Delta levees. On the other hand, information is available regarding forests of a later date on Delta levees and the high forest in northern Dobrudja. On the map of

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<sup>81</sup> Hurmuzaki, *Documents*, Supplement I, vol. II, p. 186.

<sup>82</sup> See Giurescu, *Prince Cuza*, p. 120–121.

<sup>83</sup> Academy, *Cuza Archives*, vol. L, f. 360–361 v. *The Great Geographic Dictionary*, I, p. 215.

<sup>84</sup> See General N. Ionescu, *General Eremia Grigorescu*, Bucharest, 1967, p. 78.

<sup>85</sup> On such torches see Pârvan, *Histria IV*, in A.A.R.M.S.I., s. 2, t. XXXVIII (1915–1916), p. 572.

<sup>86</sup> Information supplied by H. Grumăzescu.



1835 a forest is marked on the Letea levee<sup>87</sup>; it is an oak forest, intermingled with other varieties of trees and with creepers, wild vine and Mediterranean plants. A similar forest stands on Păcuilui Soare island, below Ostrov, on the bank of the old Danube sheltering ruins of a Byzantine stronghold erected between 971 and 976. Guelder roses, dogwood trees, elms, wild pear and morello-trees as well as wild vine, eglantines and other varieties specific to Dobrudja grow there<sup>88</sup>. The forests on the maritime levees of the Delta (Haşmacul lui Benea, Haşmacul lui Ivancenco and Hăsmăcica cu bursuci) have white and grey poplars and aspens, as well as oaks, ashes, alders and wild vine<sup>89</sup>.

The vast forest in the north of Dobrudja "Codrul," was of outstanding importance for the Romanic and subsequently the Romanian population between the Danube and the Black Sea. It provided shelter to the "Dicians" — the native Romanian Dobrudjans — as well as to refugees from Wallachia and Moldavia. It was made up of oak, ash, cornel and elm, and of lime-trees in numbers. Agriculture was developed in the district, and the exportation of wax by way of Vicina, on the site of present-day Isaccea, is recorded in documents as early as 1281<sup>90</sup>. At the time of the Turkish domination (1417–1877), the forest was exploited by the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages who brought timber to Babadag and Constanța. In the northern part of the forest, close to Niculițel, which is famous for its wine and for its monastic settlement<sup>91</sup>, there is a citadel well defended on three sides by deep valleys, with slopes of difficult access and surrounded by a forest in which there is no lack of cornelian cherries and hazel-trees, bearing edible fruit<sup>92</sup>. The northern half of the "Codrul" spreading on the hills of Taița, Cadiu, Fierul and Gîlmele on the territory of the Luncavița, Bala-

<sup>87</sup> Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 36.

<sup>88</sup> See Diaconu—Vîlceanu, *Păcuilui Soare*, p. 12.

<sup>89</sup> *Research on Forestry and Hunting in the Danube Delta*, Bucharest, 1965, p. 55–70.

<sup>90</sup> See G. I. Brătianu, *Vicina I. Contributions à l'histoire de la domination byzantine et du commerce génois en Dobrogea*, in *Académie Roumaine, Bulletin de la Section Historique*, t. X, Bucharest, 1923, p. 188; Const. C. Giurescu, *Le commerce sur le territoire de la Moldavie pendant la domination tartare*, in *Nouvelles études d'histoire*, Bucharest, 1965, p. 55–70.

<sup>91</sup> For which reason Niculițel was also named *Monaster* and *Mănăstiriște* (Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 96). See also Victor Baumann, *Basilica with martyricon of the late Romanic period discovered at Niculițel (Tulcea county)*, in "Bul. Mon. Ist.", 41 (1972), 2, p. 17–26.

<sup>92</sup> P. Diaconu, *On dating the "Circumvallation" and the "Trefoiled Church" at Niculițel*, in S.C.I.V., 23 (1972), 2, p. 307–319.

bancea and Nicolîţel communes and of the town of Isaccea, is also named "the Great Forest."<sup>93</sup>

The new edition of the map of 1738 concerning the Russo-Turkish war records the Dobrudjan high forest<sup>94</sup>.

In Dobrudja there are forests also at Negureni-Băneasa and Talaşmanu in Constanţa county. These are broad leaved forests where oak predominates. Furthermore, there is a forest at "Cheile Albeştilor," not far from the southern frontier, sheltering new poplar plantations. We should also mention that the Murfatlar Forest made up of oak, has been supplemented with acacia.

After 1878, acacia plantations were initiated in the south of Dobrudja, which lacked forests. Such is the Negru Vodă — formerly Cara Omer plantation — of 800 hectares and the Comorova plantation close to the seashore north of Mangalia, exceeding 1,000 hectares<sup>95</sup>. The latter plantation, however, includes also other species of trees, such as oaks.

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<sup>93</sup> *G.G.D.R.*, IV, p. 645.

<sup>94</sup> *M.C.*, f. 124.

<sup>95</sup> Ioan Barbu, *Cynegetic Dobrudja* in "Vinătorul şi pescarul sportiv", January, 1971, p. 19-20.

## FORESTS AND CARTOGRAPHY

*A comparison of 18th century and early 19th century maps with those of today is most useful in the study of the evolution of the forest area of the country.*

Old maps are a category of historical sources that provide valuable information concerning the extent of forest in the past; they sometimes also record the names of those forests. Yet such maps are often incomplete, with serious gaps, and sometimes supply erroneous data.

One of the oldest maps that records the location of forests dates from the end of the 14th century<sup>1</sup>, probably from the 1396 crusade: Nicopolis, on the right bank of the Danube, flies a flag with a crescent, while Turnul and Giurgiu on the left bank fly flags with a cross. Forests are represented either by isolated trees or by spots with trees on the edge. They are present in Oltenia as well as in Wallachia, and also, surprisingly, north of the Danube Delta. Riverside coppices may thus have been represented as elsewhere along the banks, but this may also be an erroneous indication. Trees are drawn either as fairly tall light-yellow ones with a high crown or as green shrubs.

Reichersdorf's map of 1532, headed *Chronographia Transylvaniae, Sybenbürgen*<sup>2</sup>, supplies some information on Transylvania's forests. It shows a number of forests in the east of the country between the river Olt and the Carpathians, and also west of the town of Braşov. North of Alba-Iulia an inscription reads: "Land vor dem Wald."

A map of Moldavia by Reichersdorf, printed in 1550, indicates a forest between Vaslui and Roman, and another between Orhei and Iaşi<sup>3</sup>. A map dating from 1566 shows the Carpatho-Danubian

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<sup>1</sup> The map published by Fr. Babinger, *Elne Balkankarte aus dem Ende des XIV. Jahrhunderts*, in "Zeitschrift für Balkanologie," Wiesbaden, II (1961), p. 6.

<sup>2</sup> *Monumenta Cartographica Moldaviae, Valachiae et Transylvaniae*, authore D. Dem. Dimancesco, 1933, f. 20, To be cited hereafter as M.C.

<sup>3</sup> G. Reichersdorf, *Moldaviae finitimarumque regionum typus*, in *Thesaurus of Historical Monuments*, III, 1864, between pages 134 and 135.



area as well as Hungary, Austria, south of Poland and most of the Balkan Peninsula<sup>4</sup>. Between the river Mureș and the Carpathians, the cartographer Giacomo Castaldi, a Piedmontese, has written *Valachia Interior*. Since this part of the country is described as "inner Walachia," it is obvious that it was surrounded by other "Wallachias," or Romanian countries, which points to the Romanian character of Transylvania. A map of 1584 by Jacob Castaldo also bears the indication "Valachia interior."<sup>5</sup>

A map well worth mentioning was published in Rome and dated 1560 (M.C.f.37). It shows the Danubian land, with a great forest lying between the river Argeș — erroneously named "Tezs f. — and the river Dimbovița: the vast forest of Vlașca.

A map with gaps is that of the well-known cartographer Domenicus Custos, dated 1596 and entitled *Moldavia, Valachia et Tartariae pars* (M.C.f.60). Forests are shown west of Bucharest, east of Pitești, between Pitești and Cîmpulung, north of Curtea de Argeș and along the Danube, west of Giurgiu. Yet no forests are marked in Moldavia and in Dobrudja. On a map of Hungary and of the neighbouring countries dating from 1620 (M.C.f.78), an extensive forest is shown east of "Argisch" (Curtea de Argeș) and of "Longenaw" (Cîmpulung), while another is seen along the higher reaches of the Dimbovița on either bank up to Tirgoviște.

A map of 1602 (M.C.f.77) records a large forest between the Crișul Negru and the Crișul Alb rivers and one in Banat between the Mureș and Bega. Gerardus Mercator's map of Transylvania (M.C.f.81) dated 1636 is the first to record the name of a forest, "Zeides Wold" i.e. the "Codlea Forest" between Brașov and Făgăraș. Several nameless forests are also shown on that map: north of the river Mureș, between the Ampoi and the Mureș, south of Zlatna, west of the river Olt, along the boundary with Wallachia, north and east of Hațeg and in Lotru county.

A map printed in Paris in 1664\* and another in Amsterdam in 1633\*\* also supply some information on Moldavia's forests. The 1664 map records the forests of Orhei and Lăpușna, west of "Orihei" and of "Tehyne" (Tighina), and also the forests north of "Vasluș." The 1663 map shows the forests of Orhei east-north-east of Iași, and also a wood on the Dniester, south-east of Tighina facing the

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<sup>4</sup> National Library in Paris, Map and Plan Department, under GeDD 2987 B (3215). The map was printed in Venice.

<sup>5</sup> A copy is kept at the Paris National Library.

\* *Théâtre de la guerre en Hongrie, Transylvanie*, etc. (M.C. f. 87).

\*\* *Carte de la haute et basse Hongrie, Transylvanie, Moldavie, Valachie, Slavonie et Croatie* (M.C.f.191).

villages of Purcari, "Telmasa" (Talmaz) and "Cowbenca" (Copanca), the forests south-east of Vaslui and south-west of Huși, the forest of Tigheciu between the Prut and the boundary of the Bugeac. Yet the map does not record the forests of Iași, nor those between the Siret and the mountains, thus leaving unexpected gaps.

In a map headed "Roumanie, Bulgarie et partie de Moldavie" (M.C.f.93), printed in 1683, Bucharest is shown in the midst of vast forests, spreading north-east up to the river Ialomița. The same occurs on Nicolaus Visscher's map (M.C.f.109) of the Danube between Belgrade and the Sea and of the neighbouring countries (Amsterdam 1706). On the map of 1664, however, forests are seen only north, west and south of Bucharest.

The map of High Steward Constantin Cantacuzino printed at Padua in 1700<sup>6</sup> is of outstanding importance for Wallachia's forests. It is the most comprehensive, though not complete either, and it records a number of forest names. Forests take up a large portion of the country's area, spreading all over the mountain region from "Rușava" (Orșova) to Moldavia's boundary. Small forests are found throughout the country and extended bodies are represented in several counties. The more important are: in Mehedinți county, east of Cerneți; north-east of Oravița; between Strehaia and the village of Bărboi; around the village of Vardinița; east of Bărboi; north of the village of Glogova; north of Strehaia; west of the village of Țintăreni. In Gorj county, between the rivers Jiu and Baia de Fier, from the mountains to the villages of Benghești and Tămășești; and south of the river Tismana. In Dolj county: north of the village of Belcin and on either bank of the Olt, from the mountains to the mouth of the river. In Vâlcea county, especially in the north, and also between the rivers Cerna and Olteț. In Argeș county, between the rivers Olt and Topolog, north-west and south-west of Pitești, recorded as Γρόσιο (probably Groși). In the east of Olt county, west of the village of Păros, a forest is recorded as Λοφιν (lights or clearings). In Teleorman county three bodies of forests spread east of the river Cotmeana. In Vlașca county a big forest is shown around Glavacioc Monastery, but the vast forests of the Comana-Călugăreni region are not marked. In Ilfov county there are big forests north-east, east and south-east of Bucharest, with Snagov and Căldărușani Monasteries in their midst. In Ialomița county there is only a small wood between Lake Călărași and the Danube. In the Râmnicul-Sărat county, east of the homonymous river, a big body of forests faces the village of Mucești. In Buzău, Săcuieni and Prahova coun-

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<sup>6</sup> Giurescu, *Cantacuzino's Map*, in *Revista Istorică Română*, XIII (1943).

ties, excepting the south, small clumps are recorded, although the hills of Buzău county, west of the Buzău river, are covered with secular forests to this day (the Ciuta forest, for example). In Dîmbovița county, two extensive bodies of forests spread in the south, near the villages of Pîrliți and Crivina; one along the river Dîmbovița; and one called Plopîi Româneștilor (Πλόπι Ρουμουνέστηλορ) south-east of the village of Românești.

A number of maps dating from the early 18th century are interesting for Moldavia's forests. The map of Guillaume Delisle, geographer of the Royal Academy of Science in Paris, entitled *Le Royaume de Hongrie et des Pays qui en dépendoient autrefois* (M.C.f.107), was presumably printed in 1703. North-west-west of Cotnari — which is described on the map as a place famous for its wines — a forest is shown, and there is another one north of Hîrlău, the celebrated Hîrlău high forest. Nicolaus Visscher's map of 1706 (M.C.f.109) records a forest between Birlad ("Berladach") and Fălciu ("Falxin"). In 1716, Dimitrie Cantemir, the scholarly Moldavian prince, drew up a map, as a supplement to his *Descriptio Moldaviae* comparable in importance with High Steward Constantin Cantacuzino's map, though it does not give any forest names. It was printed only in 1737 at Amsterdam by his son Antioh (M.C.f.122). An extensive forest is marked on it east of the Prut in Fălciu county, between the river and the Bugeac; the Tigheciu high forest. Vast forests are shown in Lăpușna county, north-west of Chișinău, in Orhei county, north-west, west and south-west of Hotin, and south of Cernăuți. Several forests are seen in Suceava county, west and east of the river Siret, and also in Hîrlău county, north of the town of Hîrlău. Between Iași and Vaslui the famous Iași forest is marked, no name being given, however, with another forest east of Birlad. A big forest is marked between the rivers Trotuș and Bistrița — the Tazlău and the Neamț forests — and yet another between the rivers Moldova and Suceava. In 1716, S. Sanson, geographer to the French king, made a map of South-East Europe (M.C.f.112) also showing a complex of forests along the Dniester. A map of 1738 related to the Russo-Turkish war (*Theatrum belli*, M.C.f.123—124), shows a forest between Hotin and the Prut reaching down to south of Ștefănești. In the 1739 map of the citadel of Hotin, a forest is marked south and east of that town (M.C.f.125).

A map of the Banat dating from 1717 (M.C.f.114) shows forests south and south-west of Teregova and west of Domașnea, west of Slatina, south of Marga, and also west of Timișoara, between the rivers Tisa and Timiș.



G. Delisle's map (*Carte particulière de la Hongrie, de la Transilvanie* [...], Paris, 20 May 1717, M.C.f.113), supplies no additional information over and above that of High Steward Constantin Cantacuzino. It shows forests on either bank of the Olt, from south of Rimnicu Vilcea to north of Slatina. A more comprehensive map is that drawn by Jo. Baptist Homann (*Regni Hungariae tabula generalis*) and printed at Nürenberg in 1718 (M.C.f.115). Forests are marked in Gorj county south and east of Tismana Monastery and in Vilcea county, north-east of Măldărești. On the eastern bank of the river Olt, forests appear between Ostrov Monastery and the village of Flămînda, west of Pitești, south and north-east of Bascov, and finally east of Odobesti in Dimbovița county.

The map of the Austrian Tobias Conrad Lotter (*Transylvaniae, Moldaviae, Walachiae, Bulgariae novo et accurata delineatio*, M.C.f.116) was printed in Vienna in 1722<sup>7</sup>. It shows forests south-east of Tighina, between the Prut and the boundary of Bugeac, west of "Trojan" (the Tigheciu high forest), east and south-east of Huși and east of Iași. Forests are also recorded south-east of Hotin, north-east of Ștefănești, between Huși and "Margozeșt" east of Birlad, as well as south-east of Iași, south-west-west of Suceava and west of Roman.

In 1723 during the Austrian occupation, a very detailed map of Oltenia was drawn by Captain Heinrich Schwanz. It comprises all human settlements, roads and waters, but unfortunately it leaves out forests<sup>8</sup>.

On an English map of 1725 (M.C.f.117) a big forest is marked west of Hirău, west and north-west of "Kotnar". In Transylvania, forests are marked south-east of Brașov, in the Birsă Land, west, north and east of Sighișoara, north-east of Cluj, south of Mediaș, north and south of Baia Mare.

There are still more wooded areas on the map published in 1729 by the brothers "Gerardum and Leonardum Valk" (M.C.f.118). It shows a vast forest east of the Prut facing Iași, and another west of Iași. Forests appear to the west, south, east, north-east and north-west of Bucharest, but those north of it are not marked. Moreover, the southern boundary of Wallachia is wrongly marked across the Wallachian plain and not along the Danube, which it reaches, on the map, only at the mouth of the river Ialomița.

The Romanian countries look abundantly timbered also on the map published by G. A. Schagen in 1729 (M.C.f.119).

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<sup>7</sup> This map records Lake Siutghiol in Dobrudja as "Ovid's Lake."

<sup>8</sup> The map is found at the Library of the Academy of the Socialist Republic of Romania, under D XXVII 5.

It is unfortunate that General de Bawr, who served in the Russian army during the war of 1768—1774, did not complete a map of Wallachia as he did for Moldavia. We find, as a compensation, a most useful description of Wallachian forests in his *Memoirs*: “Wallachia does not lack wood either; her mountains are covered with vast and splendid forests and so is part of her lowland. We should except, however, the whole plain in the vicinity of the Danube; four or five leagues’ distance from the river, wood is seldom to be found. The most common trees are oaks, ashes, elms, etc.; oaks, more particularly, are of outstanding size and fineness and are greatly sought after for the building of warships and all kinds of vessels. In Wallachia, there are very few birches, fir-trees are of a nobler variety than the common ones; their bark is whitish, their trunk very tall, very straight and almost without knots; excellent masts are made out of them and they are recommended for the building of sea craft.”<sup>9</sup> Mentions of forests in the neighbourhood of villages and boroughs are also frequent. We quote some: Not far from Bișceni “there is a great plain in the Nehoiăși forest”; Goleștii de Sus and Goleștii de Jos “at three quarters of a league’s distance from Focșani, in the plain, close to a splendid forest”; “Frățilești, a village with a church and an oak forest.”<sup>10</sup>

Between September 1790 and the end of May 1791, during the armistice and the Austrian occupation, the imperial cartographers drew a detailed map of Wallachia (the Brăila rayah excepted) and Oltenia, made up of 108 plates<sup>11</sup>. Groups of three, four or five trees represent forests while small, straight lines, stand for shrubs pointing out places where forests had formerly been.

The Austrian map records deforested areas in Prahova county: Băicoi — Tufeni — Bordenii de Sus — Bordenii de Jos — Cocorăști — Plopeni and Crîngu — Streșnicu — Tîrșor Monastery — Tîrșor. In the Snagov forest, vine is shown on the monastery island; west of lake Snagov and south of Ialomița, the hamlet of Sticlari is marked. Through the Vlăsia Forest flows the “Wlasziu” river. Around Bucharest, a big forest is marked by groups of trees: east of Colentina, south of Otopeni and east of Pasărea there is also a body of forests; and from Dirvari towards north-west along Bolintin, what was left of the big forest which sheltered a monastery at the time of Mircea the Old. Another big forest is also shown south of Fălcoianca, Prisiceni, Buda, Cornet (cornel wood) and Bragadiru. At Băneasa,

<sup>9</sup> *Mémoires*, p. 13.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 107, 126, 141.

<sup>11</sup> Academy Map Dept.

shrubs are drawn. The Cotroceni, Văcărești and Mărcuța monasteries are all marked outside Bucharest, and so are Dudești, Grozăvești, Ciurel and Herăstrău. The Austrian map is most useful for a comparative study of our forests with those of 1790.

The map drawn by General Major de Hartingh (M.C.f.175) provides valuable information on the forests in the Bucharest area during the war of 1806—1812. The town appears to be surrounded by forests on all sides. To the west stretched the high forests of Cotroceni, Grozăvești and Lupești, to say nothing of "the big forest" at Buceșani and Bolintin. The Rîioasa Forest lay north-west while to the north there spread the forests of Vlășia, Țigănești, Snagov and Scroviștea. At the beginning of the 19th century, forests stretched east up to the outskirts of the town, to Tei, continuing with the Brănești Forest, while south of the town was the Văcărești Forest, which was continued by Comana, Brăniștari and Dadilov forests as far as the Danube.

The map drawn by the cartographic department of the tsarist army during the 1828—1832 interval and published in 1835<sup>12</sup> is of highest interest in the study of Wallachian, Moldavian and Dobrudjan forests during the war of 1828—1829 which ended with the Peace of Adrianople and during the subsequent Russian occupation of the Romanian countries. Forests — as well as human settlements, roads, wells, mines, etc. — are all marked on the map, both in the highland and in the lowland. The wide forest belt along the Carpathians from one end of the country to the other is indeed impressive. The villages in the inter-Carpathian depressions and along the upper reaches of the streams seem lost in the midst of immense forests. Bodies of forests cover the hilly districts and appear farther down over the plain to the Danube. Most impressive in size are the forests of Oltenia, which spread down to south of Craiova along the Jiu Valley, with quite a wide strip (between 3 and 8 km) reaching the mouth of the Jiu, facing the village of Orășeni. In Teleorman (the "Mad Forest"), the map shows a big forest between the rivers Olt and Călmățui, before the village of Alimănești up to north-east of the village of Vispești, of about 25 kilometres in length and varying in width between 12 and 2.4 kilometres at least. East of Călmățui, between the Călmățui river and Vedeia, another forest spreads north-west-west of Rușii de Vedeia, along the villages of Văleni, Seaca, Bălțați, Gresea, Bratcovu and Măgureni. It is some 13 kilometres long and nearly 5 kilometres wide. Eastward it is continued by other forests up to the river Teleorman and even beyond it. It goes south-

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<sup>12</sup> See Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*.



ward about 14 kilometres along the river Vedea reaching over 2 kilometres in width.

The immense forest in the midst of Wallachia is also of importance. It covers the northern and western part of Ilfov county, the southern part of Dimbovița county, and it makes up extensive bodies at Căscioara — Cîrtojeni — Buceșanii de Jos in Vlașca. The location of the forest bodies and the intermediary patches of forests prove that in the past forests stretched from south of Ploiești to the Danube, encircling Bucharest and continuing with the Comana and Dadilov forests. This immense forest joined the great Teleorman forests in the region of Dealu de Jos — Izvorul de Jos — Adunați — Osăbiții ot Negreni — Catalina Scurtu — Motov.

The vast forest spreading in the north and west of Ilfov, in the south of Dimbovița county and in Vlașca was also mentioned by Fr. I. Sulzer, secretary to Prince Alexandru Ipsilanti.<sup>13</sup> He calls it the Văleni Forest from Văleni village (a mail-coach stage) sited in it and he specifies that it was "thirty hours in length and five six in width." Counting four kilometres to the hour, it follows that that forest was 120 kilometres long and 24 kilometres wide.

Between this large body of forests and the west steppe of the Bărăgan, the map of 1835 also shows small isolated woods. Beyond the river Mostiștea, real outposts preceding the steppe are the wood south-east of Crășani and the three woods south of Lehliu — Săpunari. Between the Mostiștea and the Argeș there is a wood at Ciornuleasa, a wood south of the hamlet Bordeiu Iordăchiții; three woods south of the Tămădău — Brănești road; two small woods between the Salt Road and Rasa; a bigger wood facing the villages of Budești, Aprozi and Vasilăți.

The Bărăgan steppe is not totally devoid of forests either. It is true that the three forest patches on the map of 1835 are found in an area of greater moisture, on the left bank of the Ialomița, west of Slobozia, facing Ciulnița, Bejgani-Larga and Ivănești villages and on the right bank, west and south-west of the hamlet and mail-coach stage of Slobozia. The map does not mark the Chirana Forest, of oaks and elms, which surprise us in the heart of the Bărăgan; the Ciunga Forest, the oak forest of Frățilești mentioned by General de Baur, or again the Codreanca Forest, made up of pubescent oak, wild pear-trees and sloe-trees, lying between Lehliu station, the village of Răzvani and the village of Buzoieni. The latter forest was cleared between the two world wars.

In Moldavia, the map shows extensive forests in Putna, Bacău and Tutova counties. In Putna, there is an important body of forests

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<sup>13</sup> Fr. I. Sulzer, *Geschichte des transalpintischen Daciens*, I, Vienna, 1781, p. 112

on the Odobești Hill, bounded by the rivers Milcov, Putna and Zăbala. There are five glades in those forests and in the easternmost one there stands Scînteia hermitage. Narrow roads cross the forests, one from north to south, from Tarnița hermitage to the Milcov Valley, between the villages of Miera (180 homesteads) and Șindilarii de Jos (161 homesteads); another road links Buluc hermitage to the village of Pădureni (89 homesteads) eastward and to Scînteia hermitage northward. The second body of forests in Putna county is bounded by the rivers Putna and Șușița, spreading between the villages of Soveja (397 homesteads) westward, "Vielini" (30 homesteads) eastward, Colacu (74 homesteads) southward and Ciuruc (54 homesteads) northward. A third body is to be found between the rivers Șușița and Trotuș, with the villages of Ruginești (204 homesteads) and Păunești (200 homesteads) in the east and the village of Cîmpurile (246 homesteads) in the west. A body spreads over the whole region between Vrancea and the old frontier of Transylvania, while a fifth body spreads between the river Trotuș and the Siret Valley road up to the north of Parava village.

In Bacău county, a comprehensive body of forests spread between the Trotuș Valley as far as Tîrgul Ocna (767 homesteads), then southward, west of the villages of Tisești (100 homesteads) and Grozești (366 homesteads), Mănăstirea Cașin village (311 homesteads) and the old frontier with Transylvania. A second body is to be found east of Mănăstirea Cașin, spreading north-east as far as the villages of Bogdana (100 homesteads), Căiuți (122 homesteads) and Popeni (106 homesteads) and eastward to the village of Pralea (63 homesteads). A third body of forests runs to the north, between the river Tazlău and the Siret Valley road, in continuation of the Putna forests north of Parava so far as the Bacău — Orașa Mare (Buda) road. Another extensive forest body is to be found between the Trotuș, the Tazlău and the old frontier with Transylvania.

In Tutova county, the map of 1835 records a large body of forests which begins in the northern part of Covurlui county, from the villages of Golășeia (59 homesteads) and Roșcani (73 homesteads), running northwards to the villages of Banca (81 homesteads), Ghermănești (118 homesteads) and "Stoeștești" (99 homesteads). Along the narrow road that links the village of Redești (98 homesteads) to Mîndroaia hamlet, there are three inns in succession, the middle one being named evocatively "Tainița" (cache). Forests run north-north-west of Birlad, and from Perieni (128 homesteads) northward, surrounding the village of Florești (62 homesteads) and its monastery.

According to the map of 1835, the Iași high forest, of impressive size, spread some 60 kilometres in length, beginning south-east of the village of Păun and running west to beyond Tirgul Frumos. The mail-coach road leading to Vaslui crossed its eastern half, through the villages of Ciurbesti and Lunca Birnova. But the forest was thickest in its western part, where the Cîrligătura, Roman and Vaslui counties met. In the midst of the thicket, a monastery with the evocative name of "Cetate" (Citadel) is recorded, as well as Stavnice and Hadimbu hermitages. Eastward, beyond the old monastery of Dobrovăț founded by Stephen the Great, forests north of Fălciu ran for dozens of kilometres along the Crasna river up to Docolina.

The Hirlău Forest also seems very extensive on the map. It begins at Băiceni village, running north to beyond Botoșani, facing the village of Cucoveni. Its length is of about 58 kilometres and its maximum width north-west of Hirlău, 18 kilometres. The Deleni, Dealul Balș and Zosin hermitages are found in this vast forest.

The Herța Forest began at the time close to the Prut, facing the villages of Bajura and Doroftianii di Jos, and ran south-west to the latitude of Pomirla Glubocaia, after which it continued north-west, going round Herța borough to reach the boundary of Bucovina and beyond it, especially facing the villages of Buda de Sus and Buda de Jos.

The map of 1835 also supplies information on the forests of Dobrudja. There are two forests marked on levees in the Danube Delta: one on the Letea and another on the Caraorman, spreading north-south. The Letea Forest is crossed by a narrow road linking Sulina to Carantina Bazarcuic and Vilcov. The Caraorman forest is traversed by two narrow roads. On its eastern fringe there is the village of Caraorman with 47 homesteads. There are no forests on the four other levees in the Delta: the Chilia Veche, that west of Lake Gorgov, that between the Dranov and the Belciug lagoons and that south of the Dranov lagoon. The forest in northern Dobrudja, called "Codru" is important; it is made up of two bodies of about the same size, separated by the Taița and the Lozova rivulets and by the road connecting Babadag and Măcin by way of Cerna and Greci. The northern body of forests spreads between Frecăței ("Fricace") hamlet in the east and the village of Greci (140 homesteads) in the west, between Alibeichioi ("Aleibichioi") hamlet in the north-east and Lătățuea hamlet in the north-west. On the fringes of this body of forests are also to be found: Telia mail-coach stage, "Parchiș" village of 25 homesteads and Fetexți hamlet towards the Danube, the village of Mănăstiriște, also called Niculițel, with 80 homesteads, the village of Cerna, with 85 homesteads, and "Balabania" hamlet;



furthermore Cîfîrchioi hamlet and the village of Trestenic ("Tros-tenic") with 30 homesteads. In a forest inlet, Nalbant hamlet is to be found. In the middle of the forest are "Maidanca" hamlet, a sheepfold, a lake — whose name "Lacul", together with those of the settlements of Niculişel, Greci, Lătăţuea, Feteşti and Parchiş points to the Romanian character of the district — and also Taiţa hamlet. The "Fortuna" and the Teliţa brooks run through these forests.

The southern body of forests lies west of the town of Babadag (500 homesteads), the surrounding landmarks being the 28-homestead village of Stari Slava, Teke monastery with two mills on the "Cuzil Sara" brook, the village of "Adjumear", the 28-homestead village of Topalu ("Topalo"), "Orumbeico" hamlet, the village of Cîrjelari with 20 homesteads; the village of "Isanlar" with 40 homesteads; the village of "Laella" with 23 homesteads, Ortachioi hamlet, the village of Velichioi with 24 homesteads, "Douci" hamlet, the village of "Gornraciei" with 48 homesteads and "Camberi" village with 36 homesteads. In the centre of this body of forests lies Ciucurova hamlet. The forests are traversed by the Slava brook and by a number of narrow roads connecting Ciucurova with the villages on the verge of the forests.

In the south of Dobrudja there are a number of small woods near the Danube between Lakes Gîrliţa and Oltina, between Oltina and Mîrleanu, south of Lake "Lahchiu" towards the decayed Cuzgun borough of only 25 homesteads, and finally, between the villages of Lahchiu and Arabegi. There are no forests anywhere else in Dobrudja.

Topographical surveys, worked out towards the end of the 18th century and during the first half of the 19th century by Romanian and foreign specialists, are well worth mentioning. Two such plans, as yet unpublished<sup>14</sup> were drawn by engineer Karl Gold in Buzău county: one dated 1838 for the Greci, Săhăteni, Bădeni, Miluiţi estates and another dated 1846 for the Cîmpulungeni estate. Forests look like green irregular patches big for high forests and small for coppices. The 1838 plan includes the village of Pietroasa and the indication "to the hoard", referring to the hoard discovered there in 1837. An extensive forest is represented to the north, traversed by the river Nişcov. The 1846 plan shows five separate forests.

An Austrian map dating from 1856-1857 was drawn during the occupation of the Principalities by the troops of the Vienna

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<sup>14</sup> State Archives, Bucharest, Plans, Săculeni county (Buzău), No. 57 and Buzău county, No. 5.

emperor<sup>15</sup>. It is a map of Wallachia valuable for the study of place-names. Forests are marked in grey, by a conventional sign ○-. A big forest is marked on the right bank of the Milcov, west of Virteșcoi, of Faraoanele and of Bontesti. Several names are recorded, related to forests, such as "Small Pear-tree Hill, Corneltree Hill, the Glades, Walnut Foot Hill, Pear-tree Hill, Lime-tree Hill." We also find the "Mindrești riverside coppice" east of Focșani, and the "Tzuguțzi riverside coppice" south-east of Focșani. In the Bărăgan plain, the Austrian map marks a forest over two thousand steps (*Schritte*) wide and long, south-east of Cosîmbești and south-west of Mărculești on the right bank of the Ialomița, above the riverside coppice. Underneath is the name "Kornicet" (Cornățel). A forest is shown on both banks of the Ialomița, though no name is given. North-north-east of Hagieni, in the middle of the Bărăgan, the "Agianka" (Hagianca) forest is marked. This Austrian map of 1856–1857 is also of good use in the comparative study of the extent of Romanian forests.

The map of Wallachia, drawn during the reign of Prince Cuza and published in 1864<sup>16</sup>, is based on the Austrian map of 1856–1857. Big forests are represented by two clearly outlined trees, coppices and shrubs by a conventional sign ○-. In the mountainous districts, a pair of trees are marked here and there: north of Calvini in the Bîsca Chiojdului Valley or north-east of the Siriu Peak, south-west of Mount Tâtaru or west of Mount Bocirna. In the hilly districts as well as in the mountains, we find the conventional sign ○-: in the region of Pietroasa, Greceanca de Jos, Greceanca de Sus and Șaringa, beneath the high Istrița Hill. In the plain, forests are marked in grey, by one single tree: at Florica, at Tufele Florii, at Spătariu, at Crîngul not far from the town of Buzău, and at Cîmpineanca — all of them in Buzău county. The map is less useful as forests are not marked everywhere and their area is not recorded in the mountainous and hilly districts.

The Forest Map of Romania laid down by D. Stănescu, sylvicultural engineer (Iassy, Parteni's Lithographic House, 1869) is most useful<sup>17</sup>. It shows the total area of state-owned forests (853,955 ha, without Ismail and Bolgrad counties) and the area of forests of the St. Spiridon Trust in Iași — 17,437 ha. The area of forests of the Civilian Hospitals Trust in Bucharest is not given. For very many villages the related forest area is specified, as well as the main

<sup>15</sup> Academy, Map Cabinet, DXVI/1.

<sup>16</sup> Academy, Map Cabinet, CXXII 1.

<sup>17</sup> A copy at the Forestry Research and Parcelling out Institute, Bucharest (Pipera).

varieties of trees. Thus the former Putna county : Soveja 10,522 ha, fir ; Vidra, 288 ha, fir ; Balotești, 345 ha, oak ; Broșteni, 995 ha, beech ; Vizantea, 1745 ha, fir. In the former Rîmnicul-Sărat county : Bordești, 796 ha, elm ; Borza, 481 ha, oak and elm ; Sihlele, 92 ha, oak ; Virteșcoi, 144 ha, oak. On the left bank of the Prut, between Reni and Cahul : Giurgiuilești, 480 ha, oak ; Văleni, 1,220 ha, oak ; Slobozia, 2,700 ha, oak ; Colibași, 2,250 ha, oak ; Brinza, 600 ha, oak. This amounts to compact continuation of the Tiglăciu high forest practically down to the mouth of the Prut. Slobozia in Ialomița county is put down with 747 ha, elm ; and Călărașii Vechi with 149 ha, willow. Valuable information is provided regarding the "Brăila domain" : "The islands (eyots) on the Brăila domain, the bank of the Danube and the Danube channel comprise 10,700 ha of w[illow] and p[oplar]." Apart from the afore-mentioned varieties of trees, mention is also made of [lime], h[ornbeam], b[irch] and mix[ed varieties].

These are most useful data, but we should also point to a number of deficiencies. In the first place, the map does not record all the villages. In the north of Buzău county no mention is made of the villages of Nehoi, Nehoiăș, Gura Teghii and Chiojd, all of them with extensive forests. Moreover, the area of the forest in a number of villages is not given. Finally, there are villages for which the forest area is marked, but the variety or varieties of trees the forests are made up of is not. Thus, Bucovăț, not far from Craiova, has the area marked — 199 ha — but the kind of forest is not specified. Likewise, Spanțov in Ilfov county — 5,860 ha ; Miera in Putna county — 6,608 ha ; Clipicești, in Putna county again — 177 ha. Despite these deficiencies, the map of 1869 is valuable, especially for the study of the evolution of the forest areas, for each village. It enables us to conclude that a number of forests in the hilly and plain districts have considerably decreased in area and that some of them have disappeared altogether.

In 1900, the State Forestry Department published a coloured map<sup>18</sup> of the country's forests with 38 plates, showing their distribution according to ownership ; pink for state-owned forests ; orange for the forests of public establishments ; yellow for Crown lands ; green for privately owned ones. The total forest area at the time amounted to 2,774,048 ha, distributed as follows : 1. state : 1,085,033 ha, most of it in Neamț (150,827 ha) and Tulcea counties (106,639 ha) and the least in Dorohoi (5,279 ha) and Roman counties (6,269 ha) ; 2. public establishments : 125,986 ha, most of it in Prahova county

<sup>18</sup> Academy, Map Cabinet, H. 2311 — CLXXII 1.



(28,846 ha) and the least in Covurlui county : zero ha ; 3. Crown lands : 70,188 ha, most of it in Suceava county (40,459 ha). 4. private owners : 1,492,841 ha, most of it in Gorj county (180,000 ha), followed by Vilcea county (161,000 ha), and the least in Constanța county — 86 ha. This map, together with the maps of 1835 and 1960, are excellent guide-marks in studying the evolution of the forest area.

Of lesser importance is the 1902 map of forests, with the country's territory divided into 10 forest districts<sup>19</sup>, including a useful table showing the areas in hectares and by regions of state-owned, privately owned and institutions-owned forests.

During the interwar period, engineer Sburlan drew a map of Romania's forests<sup>20</sup> on the scale of 1:800,000, showing the great number of forests in the Carpathian and the Apuseni Mountains and their scarcity in the Bărăgan plain in Ialomița and the Brăila counties and in the eastern half of Moldavia.

In 1974, engineer Alexandru Burnea drew up a special map of the Bărăgan forests in the past and present, on the scale of 1:300,000. It shows 13 forests : Groasa, Lehliu, Vărăști, Bogdana, Ghimpați, Cornățelu, Putineiu, Bazarghideanu and Ciunga between the Ialomița, the Mostiște and the Danube, and also Chirana, Ograda, Niculești-Jianu and Bôrdeiu Verde between the Ialomița and the Buzău. In the northern half of the Bărăgan there is a huge lonely elm between Reviga and Padina communes. Most of the Bărăgan forests had been oak forests, but during the last hundred years some of them have been supplemented with acacia.

Between 1951 and 1960 the "Map of the distribution of forest varieties in the Romanian People's Republic" — 39 plates on the scale of 1:200,000 — was laid down by a team of experts (Dr. Al. Beldie, I. Dumitriu-Tătăranu, V. Grapini, L. Leandru)<sup>21</sup>. It shows the bodies of forests and the main eight forest varieties, pure ones and mixed. The varieties of trees are shown by different colours and by conventional signs. This remarkable map has also been reduced to the scale of 1:1,500,000.

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<sup>19</sup> Reproduced in Russescu, *Afforestations*, plate between page 92 and 93.

<sup>20</sup> The map, made at Krafft and Drotleff's. Sibiu, is reproduced in *Holzproduktion, Holzindustrie und Holzhandel von Rumänien*, Sibiu, 1933, between pages 36 and 37.

<sup>21</sup> The map is now at the Forestry Research and Parcelling out Institute (Bucharest).

## FISCAL OBLIGATIONS BOUND UP WITH FORESTS

*In the Romanian countries there were fiscal obligations for forest wood as well as for forest game.*

Since forests have always taken up a considerable area, being a source of wealth for the country, it is quite natural that they should have involved fiscal obligations. Some of these were meeting the requirements of the prince's court and others served public interests.

In Wallachia such obligations are for the first time referred to in a document dating from 1417–1418 whereby Mihail, son and coregent of Mircea the Old, confirms the title of Cozia and Cotmeana monasteries to ten households in Tirgoviște the inmates of which were exempted from taxes and services, among which “haymaking, wood supplies [ДРЪК], cartage and any other haulage...”, their obligations consisting “only in personal tax and service in the army and at the mill, and otherwise to have no truck in any respect with the town.”<sup>1</sup> The Slavic term ДРЪК is translated in two ways by the recent editors of the Wallachian documents of the 14th–15th centuries: by “trees”, in the foregoing document and in another, dated 17 November 1431<sup>2</sup> and by “wood” in a document dated 30 June 1441. The old translations of the 18th–19th centuries use “wood” for the Slavic term, e.g. in the documents of 9 January 1443 and of 1445<sup>3</sup>. We think “wood” is the better translation for it refers to the obligation of villagers as well as of the townspeople to supply fuelwood and possibly wood of various varieties out of which all kinds of tools and containers could be made, to the prince's court, to the various houses of the prince in the country-side, in vineyards and by the Danube backwaters, as well as to the strongholds, whether located at the frontier or in the interior of the country, and moreover to the residences of the heads of the counties. In Transylvania, it was one of the obligations of the serfs (possessed

<sup>1</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, vol. I, p. 83–84.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 133–134. Likewise in the documents of August 17th 1443 (p. 173–174) and May 7th 1473 (p. 238–239).

<sup>3</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 165–166, 167, 172.

of cart and oxen) to provide a cartful or a sledgeful of wood in winter (usually about Christmas time). If the quantity could not be carried at one go, two or even three journeys were made. The obligation could in certain cases be redeemed and payment in cash was then accepted : in 1514 "wood money" is mentioned among the obligations of the serfs on the Șoimuș estate<sup>4</sup>. The serfs in the villages and boroughs that were dependent on the citadel of Hunedoara had to supply also "oak bark", used in tanning. This obligation is mentioned in documents referring to the village of Sinmartin and to the boroughs of Mănăștur and Sude<sup>5</sup>. The "Sugya" villagers, also dependent on Hunedoara, moreover provided an armful of hay on top of the wood (*unum humerale de feno super ligna*)<sup>6</sup>.

On 14 November 1728 the Austrian administration in Oltenia demanded that the quantity of wood should be specified, just like the quantity of wheat and barley, and had to suffice for "six winter months" (*pro sex hybernalibus mensibus*). In its report to Vienna, the administration points out that forest owners were cutting building timber as well as wood for sale and fuelwood without paying any dues to the authorities<sup>7</sup>, overlooking the fact that for any kind of wood sold, dues were paid either in the boroughs or, if exported, at the frontier.

Transylvanian villagers had to supply the landowner with marten pelts — the most valuable fur of the Carpatho-Danubian area — and in certain cases with other skins and also with hunting trophies. Thus, a document of 3 September 1138 informs us that Transylvania villagers had to give to Dumis Monastery (today in the Hungarian People's Republic) twenty marten pelts each, as well as a bear skin and an aurochs horn<sup>8</sup>.

When referring to the obligation to supply *building* timber, the term *tâlpi* was used (designating timber laid at the foundations of the houses). The first document to mention this fiscal obligation was issued by Prince Dan II on 28 February 1424 : the prince thereby confirms the title of Cozia and Cotmeana monasteries to ten households in Tirgoviște, whose inmates were exempted from taxes and services, among which the obligation to provide hay and building timber and from all labour services. In the Slavic text of the document, the obligation is termed *тапни*. Another document

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<sup>4</sup> Prodan, *Serfdom*, p. 244.

<sup>5</sup> Patachi, *Hunedoara*, p. LIX-IX.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 151.

<sup>7</sup> Constantin Glurescu, p. 292, 296-297.

<sup>8</sup> *D.A.R.*, C, 11th, 12th, 13th centuries, p. 3, cf. p. 192 and 13th century, vol. II, p. 68.



mentioning this obligation is dated Argeş, 15 May 1429 and has been preserved only in the old Romanian translations. The translation uses the term *cherestea*, a more recent word of Turkish origin, which means sewn timber and is consequently more comprehensive for it includes every kind of building timber.

This time those exempted from taxes and services to the prince were the villagers of Modruzeşti and of Crăpeşti, "the property of boyar Stroe with his brothers and nephews, and of David with his brother and nephews, and of others." It follows that the obligation to provide *tălpi* — i.e. to fell oaks to fashion the foundation boards and to transport them — was incumbent on both villagers and townspeople.

The fact that there were two distinct obligations — to provide wood as well as building timber — is made plain by a document dated Tîrgovişte 7 August 1445 whereby Prince Vlad Dracul confirms the title of Badea Ciutin and of his sons to the estate at Malul de Sus and at Zloteşti, exempting them from all taxes and services, such as "to provide wood and building timber and to make hay." The same formulation, with the simultaneous mention of the two obligations bound up with forests, is also to be found in later documents of July 1451; 5 August 1452; 5 August and 17 May 1472. The last 15th century document to use the term *tălpi* is dated 25 January 1499; it is issued by Prince Radu the Great to Govora Monastery to exempt the village of Glodul from services<sup>9</sup>.

The obligation to supply converted timber, whether sawn or hewn, and also poles, non-processed wood, more exactly cylindrical pieces of debarked fir trunks<sup>10</sup>, is maintained in the 17th century in both Wallachia and Moldavia. On 30 October 1630, Cyril Lucaris, Patriarch of Constantinople, confirmed the dedication to the Holy Sepulchre Monastery in Jerusalem, of the village of Poieni belonging to "Sfintu Gheorghe" Monastery in Bucharest. The village was exempted from all taxes and services, among which "taxes on grazing, fuel wood and plank supplies, and labour service to the ruling prince."<sup>11</sup> In Moldavia, on 12 January 1676, Prince Antonie Ruset exempted the site of the Creţeşti village on the river Lohan (Fălciu county) belonging to Huşi Bishopric, from taxes and services for the term of one year. The exemption also concerned poles and boats. Over

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<sup>9</sup> For this obligation see : *D.I.R. C. I*, p. 102—103, 125—126, 173—174, 179—180, 184—185, 189—190, 238—239, 472—473.

<sup>10</sup> The Romanian term (*bile*) seems to have been suggested by the round, cylindrical shape of the segment of fir trunk.

<sup>11</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XXII, p. 276.

and above the obligation of supplying converted timber, in the 17th century there was also the obligation of working the timber for the requirements of the prince's court. This is how we should interpret the document of 1645 whereby Prince Vasile Lupu exempts the serfs and servants of Huși Bishopric from compulsory services, ordering the mayor and the town councillors of Huși "not to enrol them for carriages, message carrying, carpentry or other duties of the borough people."<sup>12</sup>

Another obligation, ranging also among the labour services devolving on the population, was the "cutting of paths." At Tirgoviște on 9 January 1498, Radu the Great exempted the village of Behna, Virful Vladului and Clecevăț belonging to Tismana Monastery, from all services and taxes, whether big or small, contending among other things that "they should cut no paths either" (HH ПОТЧІЕ ДА НЕ ЧИНИТ). We believe this obligation to concern in the first place *the paths through the woods*, where wayfarers found it difficult to take their bearings and might easily lose their way; in the open field it was much easier to get about. The same obligation is mentioned in a document dated 27 March 1505 whereby Radu the Great exempts the serfs that would settle or were at the time living at Topești, a village belonging to Tismana Monastery, from all labour services and taxes, whether big or small. Among other things they were not to cut any paths<sup>13</sup>.

In the 16th century, a new obligation occurred, this time in cash and not in labour: it was named "aspers for wolves," and all villagers had to pay it. On 19 March 1533, Prince Vlad granted Tismana Monastery a three-year tax exemption for all those who were to settle in the monastery's village of Bistrița in the Danube meadow. They were not to pay "aspers for hawks, for wolves, for hay, for horses and for grain; they were only to pay the tribute and to serve in the great army."<sup>14</sup> "aspers for hawks" were paid in order to be exempted from the obligation to procure the birds needed for the prince's and especially for the sultan's falconry. Apart from thoroughbred horses, we also sent trained hawks to Constantinople. "aspers for wolves" were paid to be exempted from the obligation to shoot a number of those predatory animals, both in order to reduce the damage done to sheepfolds and herds and to have furs that served as lining or as floor coverings.

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<sup>12</sup> Melchisedec, *Chronicle of Huși*, p. 54—55.

<sup>13</sup> *D.I.R.*, I, p. 458—459, 472—473.

<sup>14</sup> *D.I.R.*, II, p. 129.

Certain villages in mountainous and hilly districts had actually to supply hawks, especially young ones that could be trained for hunting. The obligation was designated in 17th century documents as "hawk's nest." On 31 July 1629 Wallachia's prince Alexandru Iliăş exempted the village of Călimăneşti in Vilcea county and the villages of Jiblea and Brădăţeni in Argeş county from the "hawk's nest" obligation. The prince laid down the following: "Let them henceforth be at peace and freed from all the men in authority who will henceforth go about collecting hawks for the empire, for the hawks' nest written down by the hawk collectors... For some people of those villages have come before us to complain saying that the hawk collectors had put them down for a 'hawk's nest' though there have never been hawks' nests with them. And we have ascertained that they had never been under the hawks' nest obligation but their name had been put down for no reason. Consequently, we have struck them off the Treasury book that they may never have trouble with the hawk collectors."<sup>15</sup>

On the planks, masts and other types of converted timber they made, villagers had to pay a tithe, which was generally one piece out of ten. In Transylvania, the Bran commanders levied a tithe on the planks made by the serfs in the villages dependent on them<sup>16</sup>. In Moldavia, the peasants in the villages on the banks of the Bistriţa gave one mast out of ten to the owners of the forests, as shown by a document dated 15 January 1757<sup>17</sup>.

In Wallachia, during Brâncoveanu's reign, there was a special tax named "the timber tax" which, together with the "boat tribute" (*birul şecilor*) was levied on all rate payers in order to meet the expenses of the Turkish shipyard in Giurgiu. In 1696 the timber tax levied on 24 December totalled 5691 thalers, while the "boat tribute" amounted to 14,018 thalers. In 1694 the timber tax had been of 7,200 thalers and the boat tribute — also called Ali Pasha's tribute after the name of the shipyard and citadel commander — of 36,912 thalers. Together, they amounted to 44,112 thalers, which was more than 88 money bags, altogether a considerable sum<sup>18</sup>.

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<sup>15</sup> D.I.R., B, vol. XXII, p. 626; Corneliu Tamaş, *Contributions to the Knowledge of Certain Feudal Obligations: the Hawks' Nest in Historical Contributions*, Craiova, 1972, p. 140.

<sup>16</sup> Titus Haşdeu and Jenica Noaghia, *The Domain of the Bran Citadel During the 14th—16th Centuries* in "Cumidava", IV (1970), p. 76.

<sup>17</sup> Rosetti, *The Land*, p. 322, foot-note.

<sup>18</sup> Giurescu, *Contributions*, p. 109—110.



In 17th century Wallachia, a tax (*gorștina din codru*) was levied on the swine that were fattened on acorns and beech mast in the oak and beech forests. On 2 December 1636 Matei Basarab authorized the monks of Mislea Monastery in Prahova county "to collect... *gorștina din codru* on the estate of the monastery from Cornul and Brebu villages, from every man that had no land of his own, be he boyar, or cavalry man, or captain or servant, or one of the prince's servants, or townsman or peasant, to collect the *gorștina* from everyone, according to the ancient law and custom, and to exempt no one"<sup>19</sup>. From this document we may conclude that the amount to be paid was well known and that this was an old tax and was enforced as if by law. It must surely have been in force before the foundation of the state, like the tithe on the fish catch. A similar tax was levied in Transylvania, its amount varying according to the time and place.

No special information is available about the duty paid on timber exports in ancient times. Customs duty was certainly paid, and most probably it amounted to three per cent, as on other goods; but timber is not listed in the tariffs of the time of Mircea the Old and of his successors, any more than grain, salt and wine. This does not mean that they were not exported. Proof that salt was being exported are the words of Vlad Dracul himself, according to whom for every stone of Giurgiu citadel brought from the right bank of the Danube, Mircea the Old had given a block of salt<sup>20</sup>. As regards timber, the afore-mentioned Turkish regulations for the towns of Constanța, Mangalia and Babadag constitute indirect proof. Considering that the Turkish administration in Dobrudja levied customs duty on the timber destined for Constantinople as well as on the timber sold locally, it is natural that a similar duty should have been levied also by the Romanian administration. The information available for a later period, namely for the 18th century, is more specific.

An interesting fact, which has never been commented on so far, is the duty paid by villagers in wooded areas that were of difficult access. The duty was smaller, a tax-paying unit (*lude*) being made up of several villagers. An order of the Wallachian Treasury dated October-December 1819, addressed to the prefects in Dolj county, specifies that at Lower and Upper Hamărădiia, which are deemed to be woodland of difficult access as well as at Gilortu, a *lude* shall be made up of four of the well-to-do peasants or of 6 of

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<sup>19</sup> State Archives, Bucharest, ms. 466, f. 9—9 v.

<sup>20</sup> N. Iorga, *Walerand ae Wawrin and the Romanians*, in *Bulletin of Romania's Historical Commission*, vol. VI, 1927, p. 132.

the middle peasants, and 8 of the poorest peasants<sup>21</sup>. It was known that the villagers along the borders and those along the highways used by armies, messengers and couriers enjoyed tax reductions. Now another category of people has been added to those thus privileged : the villagers living in wooded areas of difficult access.

Finally we point out that during the period of the *Règlement Organique* the government of the country was entitled to levy a tithe on the wood felled in the forests of the monasteries. This is made plain in a telegram dated 11 July (new style) 1860, from Mihail Kogălniceanu, Premier of Moldavia to Prince Cuza, showing that the wood obtained from the tithe was meant for public works, and that so it had also been under the reign of Mihail Sturdza (1834—1849). One more particular is supplied, namely that Britain's agent in Iași, Consul Churchill — a forebear of the great British statesman — approved of this right enjoyed by the government while the Russian Consul Eberhardt disapproved of it<sup>22</sup>.

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<sup>21</sup> Cojocaru, *Documents*, I, p. 213.

<sup>22</sup> Academy, *Archives*, vol. XLIX, f. 191—192 v; cf. Giurescu, *Prince Cuza*, p. 152.

## SAWMILLS

*In 1868, on the river Putna alone (in Vrancea), there were more than a hundred water-driven sawmills.*

Prior to the 16th century no mention is made in documents of water-driven sawmills, but this does not exclude the possibility of their being used, especially in Transylvania, which seems to have been ahead of Moldavia and Wallachia in this respect. In stating this we have in mind an entry dated 19 May 1559 in the account books of the town of Braşov, showing that two workers of Săcele had been sent to Prince Alexandru Lăpuşneanu to set up a sawmill in Moldavia<sup>1</sup>. At the time the village of Săcele was inhabited mostly by Romanians, as it is to this day, and it is from their ranks that Moldavia's prince recruited the workers that set up his sawmill.

A second entry dated 30 November 1560 mentions one Michael Pauli — a Saxon, if we are to judge by his name — who set up a number of sawmills at the request of Lăpuşneanu again. Finally, in accordance with a third entry dated 16 December 1560, the mayor of Braşov, following Lăpuşneanu's repeated requests, issued orders that all the "instruments" required for eight sawmills, to the value of 108 florins, should be made; for the calculations needed for the above instruments, sawmiller Cristofor had been paid 29 aspers<sup>2</sup>. About the same time, sawmills (*mori de scinduri*) were working on a number of estates in Transylvania, such as the Bran estate as well as at Tohani and Zărneşti<sup>3</sup>. In stating that sawmills might have existed centuries before any mention of them was made in documents, we rely on the fact that their mechanism does not fundamentally differ from that of water mills: the power of the stream of water instead of being converted into a circular, horizontal motion is converted into a vertical, alternatively rising and descending motion.

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<sup>1</sup> Hurmuzaki, *Documents*, XI, p. 800; *erectum molam serrariam*.

<sup>2</sup> Hurmuzaki, *Documents*, XI, p. 804.

<sup>3</sup> Prodan, *Serfdom*, p. 365.



According to linguists, the Romanian *fierăstrău* (*herăstrău*) is derived from the Hungarian *fűrész*, coming from *fűresz*, and meaning "saw".<sup>4</sup> It should be observed, however, that in Transylvania *fireaz* derived from *fűresz* has exactly the same acception. Why should a second Romanian term — the already mentioned *ferăstrău*, which is obviously different from *fireaz* — have been formed? The Romanian word *joagăr* derived from the Saxon term *Zager* (*Säger* in German) has a double meaning: 1. a big saw manually operated by two men, used to saw logs or yard-long wood; 2. a water-driven sawmill<sup>5</sup>.

More information is available about sawmills in the 17th century. In Transylvania, the 52 articles instructions given by Prince George Rákóczi I before 1634 to the bailiff of the Făgăraş estate lay down, among other things, that "He should look after *morile de scînduri*, i.e. the water-driven sawmills. Plank sawing should not cease for want of care. Where deal boards cannot be sawn, beech, sycamore maple, lime, oak and other planks should be sawn, as many as possible. Furthermore, shingles, staves, vine props, hoops and other necessary woodware should be made in quantity."<sup>6</sup> Plank mills were also found at Porumbacu de Sus and Breaza and "millers" were all Romanians.

In Moldavia, on 23 September 1634, Chancellor Teodor on behalf of Prince Vasile Lupu demanded of the Bistriţa people *ferăstrăie* for the cutting of trees and other things<sup>7</sup>. As the Romanian term has two meanings it is impossible to specify whether a saw or a sawmill was required. On the other hand, a document of 4 April 1637 mentions four sawmills on the river Oituz in the village of Grozăveşti, belonging to Chancellor Dumitru Buhuş<sup>8</sup> while another document, dated 1637 as well, mentions the sawmills on the river Bohotin belonging to the same high officer<sup>9</sup>. In 1660 mention is made of the sawmill on the river Jijia belonging to boyar Nicolae Buhuş<sup>10</sup> of the same family, which seems to have been engaged in the timber trade, possibly in timber exports.

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<sup>4</sup> I. A. Candrea, *Encyclopedic Dictionary "Carlea Românească"* under "feres(t)ău"; *M.D.R.I.*, under "ferăstrău."

<sup>5</sup> *M.D.R.L.*, under "joagăr."

<sup>6</sup> *Urbarta*, p. 10.

<sup>7</sup> Iorga, *Bistriţa Documents*, p. XCV.

<sup>8</sup> Academy, *Documents*, CDXXV/7.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibidem*, CDXXV/7.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibidem*, LXXXI/75.

In 1716 Dimitrie Cantemir placed timber oak, cornel wood and deal<sup>11</sup> at the top of the list of Moldavia exports. Obviously part of it was converted timber put out by the sawmills, while another part was exported in the form of logs and masts made into rafts, and a third part in the form of chips resulting from work with the axe or the hatchet.

From 8 May 1798, information is available about Prince Brâncoveanu's estates at Simbăta de Sus, in the Făgăraș Land, and at Poiana Mărului, "with big sawmills, mountains, forests, etc."<sup>12</sup>

At the beginning of the 19th century there is more information regarding sawmills in Moldavia. Some unpublished documents concern sawmills on the rivers of the Slatina Monastery estate as well as on other rivers<sup>13</sup>.

On 11 August 1812 a deed was issued by the Superior of Slatina monastery authorizing Captain Simeon to build a sawmill at Suha Mare on the monastery estate, in return for his services to the monastery, but with the obligation of a tithe on the timber turned out<sup>14</sup>. Consequently, just as one could plant vine or fruit trees on somebody else's land paying a tithe, or build a house in consideration of rent paid under a long-term lease, it was possible to install a sawmill on paying a tithe on the products put out.

In the 19th century the value of wood was beginning to rise. This is how we interpret the order issued by Prince Scarlat Callimachi to the Prefects of Neamț to compel the villagers from the Hangu estate of Princess Ralu Cantacuzino to cut wood for converted timber and boards in the forest of the estate<sup>15</sup>. This is also how we interpret the understanding of 14 April 1821 between Ioan Obreja and Slatina Monastery, reading: "I, Ioan Obreja, hereby testify by my letter written at the holy Slatina Monastery, making it known that I was allowed to build a sawmill on the estate of the holy monastery, on the river Suha, with the obligation of giving the monastery two out of every ten pieces of timber sawn at the mill, not being allowed to cut ash or lime but being free to cut any other variety of timber. And I shall be entitled to possess it in peace and untroubled by the monastery." And so shall his son. On the death of his son, however, the sawmill was to become the property of the monastery. Obreja moreover bound himself not to sell the sawmill to anyone<sup>16</sup>.

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<sup>11</sup> *Descriptio Moldaviae*, p. 74–77.

<sup>12</sup> Hurmuzaki—Iorga, *Documents*, XV, 2, p. 1810, no. 3495.

<sup>13</sup> Academy, *Romanian Documents*, CLXXXVI/304.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibidem*, CLXXXVI/243.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibidem*, CLV/67.

<sup>16</sup> *Ibidem*, CLXXXVII/86.

We will moreover note the deed of 26 April 1823 whereby Slatina Monastery donates to Captain Simion Novîţchi the twenty "fâlci"\* of land he had cleared in the forest around the sawmill on the Suha Mare brook<sup>17</sup>. This meant that the afore-said captain had felled all the trees over an area of nearly 29 hectares and had made converted timber thereof at his sawmill. The captain must have carried weight with the monastery to have the cleared area donated to him.

In the Russian statistical map of the Romanian Principalities covering the 1828—1832 interval, sawmills are recorded in Moldavia only in Suceava and Bacău counties. In the former county two sawmills are mentioned on the Suha Mare brook, one on the Rîşca brook and the other on the Rîşcuţa brook; in the latter county three sawmills are found on the river Suliţa, a tributary of the Trotuş south-west of the village of Suliţa, and one south-west of Mănăstirea Caşin village<sup>18</sup>. There were sawmills in Vrancea county as well, though the map omits them: the second name of the village of Veatreşti, Herasteu (70 homesteads) is proof of it<sup>19</sup>.

The situation must have been the same in all mountain communities, but the sawmills being part of the villages were not shown on the map<sup>20</sup>.

Other sources reveal the existence of sawmills in various mountain districts. Thus, we know that there were no less than 25 sawmills at Bistricioara<sup>21</sup>. In 1838 the Hangu Hermitage had 17 sawmills<sup>22</sup>. According to official data, in 1848—1849 the four mountain counties had 367 sawmills<sup>23</sup>. In our opinion figures are below reality as in 1848, 242 sawmills were working in Bacău county alone<sup>24</sup>.

In his monograph on the agriculture of Putna county<sup>25</sup> Ion Ionescu de la Brad provides a valuable piece of information on the multitude of sawmills to be found in the mountainous part of that area. He states that in 1868 there were, on the river Putna alone, more than one hundred sawmills whose average daily output was of "60 to 80 deals."<sup>25</sup>

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\* a falce = 14.32269 sq. m.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibidem*. CLXXXVI/249.

<sup>18</sup> Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 157, 215.

<sup>19</sup> *G.G.D.R.*, III, p. 702.

<sup>20</sup> Giurescu, *op. cit.*, p. 157.

<sup>21</sup> Vlăduţiu, *Bicaz*, p. 248.

<sup>22</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>23</sup> Platon, *The Feudal Estate*, p. 16—17.

<sup>24</sup> Bolcu, *Industry*, p. 198.

<sup>25</sup> *Agriculture in the Putna County*, Bucharest, 1869, p. 48—49.



In Wallachia, mention is made of a sawmill in a document dated 27 April 1701, under which Prince Constantin Brâncoveanu authorized the representative of Cotroceni Monastery to press the men as many of them as will be found on the estates of the Holy Monastery at Cristănești, and have them go and repair the pond of the sawmill, where it has deteriorated<sup>26</sup>. It is plain that in addition to sawmills installed on mountain brooks where it was easy to have a waterfall, sawmills were installed at the lower end of a pond. The village of Cristănești may be that in Argeș county<sup>27</sup> or in Rimnicul-Sărat county<sup>28</sup> or perhaps — and that is more likely — the village on the outskirts of Bucharest, which was subsequently swallowed up by the town<sup>29</sup>. In the last case, the sawmill in question is the predecessor of the one which in the early 19th century was located on the river Colentina in the north of Bucharest, at a place now named Herăstrău. On 11 November 1827, Kreuchely, Prussia's consul in Wallachia's capital, wrote to his minister in Berlin that Herăstrău was "the favourite haunt of the Bucharest fashionable society."<sup>30</sup> Around the sawmill, a small settlement was gradually formed, which on the statistical map of 1835 is marked as "Heres-teu" and is said to be made up of 5 to 20 homesteads. On 14 July 1801, Damaschin, the Superior of Sinaia Monastery, lodged a complaint with Prince Alexandru Moruzi stating that the lessee of the Comarnic estate was having a sawmill built on the estate of the monastery without being granted the lawful permission. Furthermore, on 23 April 1807, the Superior of Mărgineni Monastery sold the Reverend Vasile of Teșila "a place for a sawmill on the river Dragomireasa"; the buyer was to build a sawmill with the obligation of paying the monastery 30 lei per annum<sup>31</sup>. Account being taken of these facts as well as of Wallachia's extensive forests and of her timber exports to the Ottoman Empire, we question Dionisie Fotino's statement of 1815 that in the whole of Wallachia only some 5–6 sawmills were set up a few years back for cutting boards and that most carelessly<sup>32</sup>. On 27 August 1838, a certain Berhă associated with Grigore Periețeanu in order to build a sawmill on the river

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<sup>26</sup> *Documents Concerning Agrarian Relations in the 18th Century*, vol. I, Bucharest, 1961, p. 189.

<sup>27</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, Index, p. 29.

<sup>28</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, 17th Century, p. 39.

<sup>29</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, Index, p. 29.

<sup>30</sup> Hurmuzaki—Iorga, *Documents*, X, p. 432.

<sup>31</sup> Cojocaru, *Documents*, I, p. 67, 74–75.

<sup>32</sup> Zane, *Texts*, p. 8.

Slănic on the Lopătari estate<sup>33</sup>. And there were many more sawmills on the various rivers and brooks in the mountainous and hilly districts of Wallachia, some of them of long standing, though we have no written testimony thereof. There was a sawmill on the river Milcov (Rimnicul-Sărat county) in Andreiași commune, close to the boundary with Moldavia<sup>34</sup>; it is from it that a former frontier guards' picket had taken its name.

In the latter half of the 19th century, the old water-driven sawmills were gradually superseded by modern steam-driven sawmills. A new stage began in forest exploitation.

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<sup>33</sup> Academy, *Romanian Documents*, CCXLVI/42.

<sup>34</sup> *G.G.D.R.*, III, p. 702.

## ROMANIAN FORESTS IN THE MODERN AND CONTEMPORARY TIMES

*The area of Romanian forests has decreased in the modern and contemporary times by about 3,800,000 hectares.*

**Forest in the Modern Times (1781–1918).** We consider that the modern history of Romanian forests begins in the late 18th century with the first official regulations relative to forest exploitation and conservancy: in 1781 in Transylvania, in 1786 in Bucovina, 1792 in Moldavia, and 1793 in Wallachia, while its end coincides with that of World War I.

This century and a quarter may be divided into two stages delimited by the beginning of intensive exploitation by means of steam-driven sawmills. At first, only water-driven sawmills were used. Although their number was increasing steadily — according to official data there were 608 such sawmills in Romania in 1867, each of them cutting some 40 boards a day<sup>1</sup> — nevertheless their cutting capacity did not exceed the forest regeneration power. Yet, a new element disturbed the balance to the detriment of forests: forest clearing in the plains, on hills and even on mountains, for the purpose of obtaining agricultural land. The Treaty of Adrianople (1829), which had ensured freedom of navigation on the Danube and on the Black Sea as well as freedom of trade, resulted in an increasing demand for Romanian grain, which was good and cheap, in the markets of Western Europe. The output of Romanian grain increased and the tillable fields expanded to the detriment of forests, which were being cleared to an ever greater extent. The phenomenon is brought out by all those who have investigated the matter.

K. Mihalik of Hodocin, professor at Academia Mihăileană, wrote in 1840 that forest economy in the Bistrița Valley was “in a sad plight.” “By inordinate timber exportation, by the disproportionately numerous sawmills, the great valley of the Bistrița together with the adjacent valleys, is being stripped of timber.” “In order to extend pasture land for sheep and cattle, whole forests of several

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<sup>1</sup> Notice, p. 80.



hundred "fălci" are purposely set on fire and thus in a matter of hours, the most beautiful trees, a growth of hundreds of years, are lost."<sup>2</sup> A still more distressing fact was brought out by the botanist Charles Guebhard in 1849 when he pointed out that forests, which had covered nearly the whole of Lower Moldavia, were being gradually destroyed, and at the time took up only a very small portion of it. "Some of the landowners give the need for tillable fields as a reason for deforestation," the botanist writes, "but for most of them there is no reason other than speculation," for the price of building timber and of fuelwood is yearly increasing at an extraordinary rate. And as no thought is given to afforestation, moreover, cattle are allowed to graze in the forests most of the year, especially in the spring, to the prejudice of young shoots, it is doubtless that in twenty years' time there will not be an acre of forest land left in Lower Moldavia which will have nothing but bare, arid steppes to offer to the traveller's eyes."<sup>3</sup> In his monograph on agriculture in Mehedinți county, Ion Ionescu de la Brad points out that in 1859 the total forest area of the county was of 225,620 acres (*pogoane*), out of which 21,744 acres of first-rate timber, 72,639 acres of medium timber and 136,237 acres of shrubs, adding: "Forests are being steadily cleared so that the area indicated in 1859 is not valid for the present day" [1867]. He would have no clearing effected in the mountains, since the soil is subsequently washed away by the rain and there is nothing left but the bare rock<sup>4</sup>.

The preamble to the Forestry Code of 8 April 1910 pointed out that "the forests of the plain... have gradually disappeared altogether<sup>5</sup> as leave to clear forests has been so easily given."<sup>6</sup> Furthermore Emil Pop, a great forestry expert and lover of forests wrote: "An immeasurable expanse of oak forests spread over the Moldavian and Wallachian hills and hillocks 150—200 years ago. Today, it has been almost completely done away with." In Pop's opinion, the main cause of this state of things was the exportation of the grain<sup>7</sup>. By mid 19th century, at the close of the first stage, an imba-

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<sup>2</sup> *Observations on the Condition of Forests in the Upper Bistrița Valley*, Iași, 1840, p. 7, 8.

<sup>3</sup> Charles Guebhard, *Notice géographique et botanique sur la Moldavie, pour servir d'introduction à la flore de ce pays*, Genève, 1894, p. 6, 7.

<sup>4</sup> Ion Ionescu, *Romanian Agriculture in the Mehedinți County*, Bucharest, 1868, p. 128—131.

<sup>5</sup> This is not very far from the truth if we recall the immense forests that covered the plains of Wallachia and Oltenia two centuries ago.

<sup>6</sup> *Code*, p. 41.

<sup>7</sup> Pop, *Forests*, p. 18—19. The second cause, i.e. the paving of the main roads of Romanian towns with wood, was no longer topical by 1835—1840.

lance is obvious, the wooded area decreasing to give way to agriculture. For Moldavia alone the decrease amounted to 8,500 ha annually. In 1837 Moldavian forest were estimated to extend over 399,254 fălci — the most thickly wooded districts being Bacău with 94,530 fălci, Neamț 86,403 and Suceava with 79,386 — while in 1851 they took up an area of barely 375,730 fălci<sup>8</sup>. Consequently, a decrease of 23,794 fălci or some 34,000 hectares, in a four-year interval. However unreliable the statistics of those days may be<sup>9</sup>, we are inclined to admit the decrease to be a certainty for the figures are provided by the same authority.

The imbalance was to increase considerably when the great woodworking mills came into play, and when forest exploitation turned into sheer devastation. Forest exploiters were interested not only in the forests of the plain and of the hills, but also in those of mountain districts. The forests of the Vrancea freeholders are a typical example of savage exploitation. G. Belinsky, forestry engineer, stated in 1922 that the final result of this procedure was : an area of about 15,000 hectares within Coza-Tulnici-Negrilești-Birșești-Poiana-Năruja communes, “deforested, without a single tree being left and with ravines, torrents and sliding soil.”<sup>10</sup> In less than four decades savage exploitation did away with forests that had covered the Vrancea Mountains for thousands of years and which had given their name to that part of the country<sup>11</sup>. The words spoken by old Ion Tatu of Popești, aged one hundred in the spring of 1974, are characteristic and also distressing : “When I was a young man the forest came down to my gate. Today it takes a day’s walk to reach its paths.”<sup>12</sup> The same occurred in other mountain districts even though the exploitation was less savage. Thus, Mount Rîșnov in the Prahova valley was stripped of all conifers. The felling was ruthless ; in places there was nothing left but bare rocks<sup>13</sup>. Forests were felled in the Lotru Valley, in the Buzău Mountains, and in Transylvania. In Maramureș, as in fact in most places, especially

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<sup>8</sup> Russescu, *Afforestations*, p. 268—269.

<sup>9</sup> A comparison of the forest areas during the 1851—1860 interval will show how unreliable Moldavian statistics were before they had been scientifically organized by Marțian during Prince Cuza’s reign (Russescu, *op. cit.*, p. 271).

<sup>10</sup> G. Belinsky, *Freeholders’ Forests in Vrancea*, in “*Revista Pădurilor*,” XXXIV (1922), p. 72, 73, 74.

<sup>11</sup> Giurescu, *Vrancea*, p. 280—283.

<sup>12</sup> Const. Zlibuț, in “*România Liberă*” of April 5th, 1974, p. 1.

<sup>13</sup> G. Stătescu, *Ascent Through Forests in the Prahova Valley*, in “*Revista Pădurilor*,” I (1886), p. 51.

conifers were cut, and primarily spruce, a splendid tree which has yielded place to beech<sup>14</sup>. Toponymy alone recalls the one-time presence of conifers in Maramureș, at places where there are none left today.

In modern times, timber chutes were introduced at the suggestion of foreign technicians, in order to intensify forest exploitation. These are wooden troughs fairly wide-bottomed and with slanting sides down which logs are sliding; to speed up the sliding of the logs, the chute is splashed with water which freezes, for it is in winter that trees are felled for lumber<sup>15</sup>. From the 1786 Regulations we can infer that no chutes were used in Bucovina at the time, for point 12 makes a detailed description of a chute which would not have been necessary if the procedure had been known.<sup>16</sup> Chutes had been used for some time in Western and Central Europe<sup>17</sup>.

Following the felling of trees using backsaws and axes, plugs (*ceपुरi*) were cut after which the trees were debarked (*cojite*) and the trunks were cut to the required size (*curmate*) and hauled (*corhănite*) to the places where they were to be loaded. The stubs (*pociumbi*) left in the ground were also debarked.<sup>18</sup>

It is difficult to make an estimate of the decrease of the national forest area during the 1781–1918 interval. However, taking into consideration the large-scale forest clearing in the plain and in the hilly area as well as the felling in the mountains, we believe 2,500,000 hectares to be no exaggeration. People were worried to see the forests being felled to such an extent and their area diminishing<sup>19</sup>. In a letter written short after 1809<sup>20</sup>, the villagers of Hoghîng, Brașov county, pointed out that “forests decreased in number.” Alexandru Ioan Cuza was also greatly worried with the havoc wrought in forests on monastery estates<sup>21</sup>. In a monograph of 1866, Ion Ionescu de la Brad stated that “forests had thinned out and decreased in number” in Dorohoi county and recommends that protective plantations should be set up on the hilltops along the Prut<sup>22</sup>, P. S. Aurelian,

<sup>14</sup> Emil Pop, *Contributions to the History of Forests in the North of Transylvania*, in “Buletinul grădinii botanice”, vol. XXII (1942), p. 109.

<sup>15</sup> Vlăduțiu, *Romanian Ethnography*, p. 258.

<sup>16</sup> *Forest Regulations*, p. 47–48.

<sup>17</sup> P. Deffontaines, *L'homme et la forêt*, p. 108–109.

<sup>18</sup> Vlăduțiu, *op. cit.*, p. 253. *Forest Regulations*, p. 33.

<sup>19</sup> *Voyage*, p. 20.

<sup>20</sup> Iorga, *Romanian Acts*, p. 202. According to the survey department in 1857, out of the total area of Transylvania, forests covered some 43.1 per cent (Bielz, *Siebenbürgen* p. 246). The area covered by forests in 1918 was smaller.

<sup>21</sup> Academy, *Prince Cuza Archives*, vol. LII, p. 433–440.

<sup>22</sup> Ion Ionescu, *Romanian Agriculture in the Dorohoi County*, Bucharest, 1866, p. 53 and 148.



the future premier, alarmed at the increasing rate of the clearing process, called for a law to protect forests, just as he called for a law to protect waters<sup>23</sup>, for reckless deforestation is closely bound up with the disturbance of the regime of waters, which turn into torrents that wash away the fertile humus on the slopes of mountains and hills.

Since the rate of forest clearing increased apace with detrimental consequences, a number of measures and initiatives were taken in defence of forests. In the first place towards the end of the 18th century ordinances were issued by the higher state authority. Their value was theoretical more than practical for they assumed the form of desiderata and did not actually prevent the decrease in the forest area, especially in Wallachia and Moldavia. In 1843 a law was passed in Moldavia on the protection and exploitation of the forests on monastery and church estates, of the forests of public establishments, of mines and of the trust estates. A second law passed in March 1844 supplemented the first. On account of Tsarist Russia's opposition exercised by the consul in Iași, the law could not be applied to the monasteries dedicated to another religious authority abroad. Moreover, the official who saw to the application of the law was not entitled to interfere in the administration of council ruled monasteries, such as Neamțu, Văratec and Agapia, and in consequence the results of the law were insignificant. This was also the time when forestry was included in educational curricula, dendrological parks and botanical gardens were set up, forestry societies were formed and forestry reviews were published for the purpose of spreading knowledge in forestry matters and of protecting forests.

The crowning point of all such measures and initiatives was the working out of forest codes. The chapter on forest laws also includes an analysis of the first ordinance of the end of the 18th century.

The first school of forestry was set up in Sibiu in 1817 with S. Guilleaume, a silviculturist, as headmaster and chemist Peter Sigerus as botany professor. It was a three-year school<sup>24</sup>. The 1843 draft for the reorganization of Moldavian education included compulsory subjects and extra-ordinary ones among which "the science of forests." Subjects were divided into three categories: polytechni-

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<sup>23</sup> M. Moșoc, M. Botzan and C. Haret, *Land Improvement*, in *The History of Agricultural Sciences*, ms. 1974, p. 95.

<sup>24</sup> D. Ivănescu, *From the History of Romanian Sylviculture*, Bucharest, 1972, p. 304.

cal sciences — hydraulic architecture, mechanics, popular astronomy; economic sciences, among which, field economy, chemistry and the science of forests; philological sciences: Greek, French, German and Russian<sup>25</sup>. A step forward was taken in 1850, when a school was set up in Bucharest with three French sylviculturists as teachers. Fifteen pupils attended the school, which only lasted till 1853 when the teachers returned to France. Nor did the higher forestry school set up in 1860 on the representation of Mihail Rîmniceanu, the first Romanian sylviculturist, last longer. From 1862 to 1883 forestry was taught at the school of agriculture: first at Pantelimon up to 1867 and subsequently at Herăstrău. Between 1883 and 1886, a school of forestry was attached to the Ministry of Domains, after which sylviculture was again one of the subject matters of the school of agriculture, and ultimately a forestry school was set up at Brănești in Ilfov county in 1893, where only matriculated students were admitted after 1901. From 23 September 1923, higher forestry education was part of the curriculum of the Polytechnical School of Bucharest and after World War II a Faculty of Forestry was created in Bucharest<sup>26</sup>.

In Moldavia, a school of forestry was founded at Tîrgul Neamț (Neamț county) in 1859<sup>27</sup>; it was not to last for long and after the administrative unification of the Romanian Principalities, only the school in Bucharest continued to function. Simultaneously, however, young people were being sent to specialize at the national forestry school at Nancy in France<sup>28</sup>. No less than 81 Romanian students — nearly half the number of our sylviculturists boasting higher studies — attended the Nancy school from 1855 to 1905<sup>29</sup>.

It was love for forests and interest in them that induced the setting up of dendrological parks and botanical gardens. The oldest dendrological park on Romanian territory is that of Simeria set up in mid 18th century in a natural forest on the banks of the river Mureș, where many varieties of European and non-European trees have gradually been planted<sup>30</sup>. On an area of 70 hectares, the park shelters descendants of the oldest acacia in the country, brought

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<sup>25</sup> I. C. Filitti, *Romanian Reigns under the Règlement Organique*, Bucharest, 1915, p. 607.

<sup>26</sup> Ivănescu, *op. cit.*, p. 305.

<sup>27</sup> V. A. Urechia, *The History of Schools*, vol. III, Bucharest, 1894, p. 230; Giurescu, *Prince Cuza*, p. 425.

<sup>28</sup> "Revista Pădurilor," I (1886), p. 27.

<sup>29</sup> Ivănescu, *op. cit.*, p. 306.

<sup>30</sup> Șt. Radu and A. Hulea, *The Simeria Arborelum — Guidebook Album*, Bucharest, 1964, p. 7, 18, 23.

from France<sup>31</sup> and planted here in the second half of the 18th century; a magnolia with giant leaves and blossoms "as big as a tray"; remarkable specimens of elms of record size: 120 cm in diameter and 32 metres in height. From among American trees, there are Californian cypresses, Canadian maples, big catalpas, Virginia junipers and Canadian vine. From among the 560 varieties in the Simeiria dendrological park or arboretum, 10 per cent are European, 16 per cent Eurasian, 35 per cent Asian, 21 per cent North American.

In 1842, Dimitrie Moruzi initiated a handsome dendrological park on his estate at Pechea (Covurlui county). A botany specialist from France lived at Pechea for a year and a half, but on Moruzi's death, the Frenchman departed and the undertaking came to an end<sup>32</sup>. In 1856, a botanical garden with some 2500 varieties of trees and plants was set up in Iași, on the representations and at the expense of Dr. Anastasie Fătu<sup>33</sup>.

The botanical garden of Bucharest, inaugurated on 5 December 1860 during the reign of Prince Cuza, was first located near its present-day site, then in front of the University, being moved in 1885–1890 to a far more extensive site on Cotroceni Hill where it is to be found today. The Cișmigiu Park in Bucharest was laid out in 1845, was extended in 1851–1852 and has been constantly embellished to our days with both autochthonous and exotic trees.

We should also mention two 19th century private parks with old autochthonous trees: the Tintava and the Buftea Parks, both in the vicinity of Bucharest. The former, on the estate of the Băleanu family, had an underground network of tubes with hydrants for watering. The latter was on the estate of the Știrbei family on the shore of Lake Buftea, one of the lakes formed by the river Colentina<sup>34</sup>.

In the early 20th century the first attempts were made to form *nature reserves*. In 1907 the administration of the Church Fund of Bucovina was requested by the Ministry of Agriculture and Domains in Vienna to suggest nature reserves and it designated the centuried forest of Slătioara on Mount Rarău and the Putna Forest. Yet, the final decision in the matter was made by the Romanian authorities in Bucharest in 1925.

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<sup>31</sup> Information supplied by Dumitriu—Tătăranu.

<sup>32</sup> Scarlat Callimachi, *Unpublished Pages about Moldavia*, Bucharest, 1947, p. 30.

<sup>33</sup> *Dates*, p. 201; Adina Arsenescu, *The Society of Physicians and Naturalists of Iași*, in *Noesis*, vol. I, Bucharest, 1973, p. 153.

<sup>34</sup> Giurescu, *History of Bucharest*, p. 392, 393, 395, 397.



The setting up of the Sylvicultural Progress Society in Bucharest in 1886 was an important moment in spreading information on forestry problems and on the remedies suggested. The initiative was taken by a group of 46 founding members: "sylviculturists and owners of forests." The statutes included 42 articles, article two specifying the object of the society. The initial administration committee was made up of the most representative personalities in the field of forests<sup>35</sup>. The society carried on meritorious activities among which the publication of "Revista pădurilor," a genuine treasure-store for the history of Romanian sylviculture. Lectures were delivered and the well-deserving young people who devoted themselves to the science of forestry were encouraged. Yet, one essential thing could not be done: to prevent the plunderous exploitation of forests by Romanian companies under foreign management; to stop the havoc in the Vrancea Mountains and the clearing of the oaks in the Wallachian and Moldavian plains and hills. It was also in 1886 that sylviculturist A. Eustațiu advocated the setting up of a "Forest Fund", which was to collect the sums from fines for forestry offences with a view to the development and expansion of the forests subjected to the forestry system<sup>36</sup>. The Fund was set up in 1910.

In modern times, a body was formed, which took over the management of state-owned forests and saw that forest laws were observed. To begin with, clerks did not have purely forestry duties to perform. When the first nurseries were set up in 1864 in accordance with the law of 1 September 1862, two of the agricultural inspectors had among their duties to see to the afforestation of barren land and to visit forest nurseries once a year<sup>37</sup>. When the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, Trade and Domains was set up in 1883, Article 17 of the law laid down that "the outside forest department made up of inspectors, sub-inspectors, general guards and secondary agents were entrusted the task of seeing to the exploitation, conservancy and extension of state-owned forests. Yet the exploitation of state-owned forests was faulty, as proved by the amount of the collections made during the 1882—1886 interval. In the financial year 1883—1884 they decreased to 951,000 lei, and further in 1884—1885, they went down disastrously to 340,000, and to 635,000 lei in 1885—1886<sup>38</sup>.

<sup>35</sup> "Revista pădurilor," I (1886), p. 18—25. Alongside political personalities such as Baron B. Bellu, I. Kalinderu, and G. F. Robescu, among the founder members and the directors, there were experts such as A. Eustațiu, Ioan P. Chihaia, C. Stănescu, C. Olănescu, N. R. Danieleescu, Al. Moraru, C. Orăscu, C. Panaitescu, N. G. Popovici and I. C. Eleuterescu.

<sup>36</sup> A. E. Eustațiu, *The Forest Fund*, in "Revista pădurilor," I (1886), p. 14—16.

<sup>37</sup> Russescu, *Afforestations*, p. 162, 163, 181.

<sup>38</sup> "Revista pădurilor," 1887, p. 226.

As the skilled staff was not sufficient, foreign experts, especially Frenchmen, were resorted to in matters pertaining to nurseries and afforestation. It was only in 1887 that a Forest Department, headed by inspector Daniel Patruleus, was created as part of the Ministry of Domains. Following the issue of a new Forest Code in 1910, the department developed, the number of officials increased and its assignments became more complex.

To sum up, in the modern period, the forest area was decreasing steadily: forests — more particularly oak forests — were cleared in the plains and on the hills, and mountain forests were savagely exploited, conifers coming first under the axe. The decrease in the forest area is accounted for by the need for agricultural land and also — and foremost — by the greed of big, fast got gains of capitalist forest exploitation companies. A counteraction set in: measures were taken for the protection and good management of forests, and for the reforestation of land degraded by reckless felling. At the same time, forest codes were worked out and a body of experts and technicians was built up to ensure the application of the codes. The final balance of this period is definitely a debit balance<sup>39</sup>.

**Contemporary Forests (1919–1974).** The forest statistics published in 1931 recorded 7,134,200 hectares of forest land in Romania in 1929, out of which 2,053,691 state-owned, 1,921,530 privately owned and state-managed, 217,880 owned by communes and public establishments, and 2,941,099 privately owned<sup>40</sup>. The foregoing figures also included deforested and degraded land. The same statistics supplies the following figures for the varieties of trees: conifers — 1,614, 719 ha; beech — 2,452,751 ha; grown oak — 1,548,774 ha; elm and ash — 84,901 ha; hard broad-leaved trees — 459,387 ha soft broad-leaved trees — 287,943 ha. The total amounts now to 6,448,475 ha<sup>41</sup>.

The preamble to the Law on Forest Management of 25 April 1930 records, however, forest area amounting to 6,486,471 ha<sup>42</sup>.

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<sup>39</sup> Pop, *Forests*, p. 14, 16.

<sup>40</sup> Drimbă, *Étude*, p. 19, 20.

<sup>41</sup> *Ibidem*. Romania ranked 9th in 1938 from the standpoint of the average wooded area per capita, and 14th from the standpoint of the wooded area compared with the total area of the country. Romania accounted for 2.4 % of the overall wooded area of Europe, the U.S.S.R. (west of the Urals) for 53 %, Finland for 9 %, Sweden for 8 %, Germany for 4 %, France for 3.5 %, Poland for 3 %, Yugoslavia for 2.8 % and Norway for 2.5 % (V. Sabău, *Forest Cultivation and Lumbering*, in *An Encyclopaedia of Romania*, III, p. 449.

<sup>42</sup> *Code*, vol. I, p. 646.

According to ownership, the total is divided as follows: the state — 1,942,000 ha, which is 111,691 ha less than in the previous table; Crown lands — 66,492 ha; communes and counties — 681,197 ha; trust forests and foundations 125,628 ha; church and religious funds — 467,605 ha; coparceners 655,707 ha; freeholders — 450,566 ha; private people and limited liability companies — 2,097,276 ha. Assessed in percentages, the last category holds the first place with 32.4 per cent followed by the state, with 29.9 per cent; the communes and the coparceners with 10.5 per cent and 10.1 per cent respectively, etc.

The Statistical Yearbook for 1972 considers the total forest fund to have amounted to 6,476,000 ha in 1938, to 6,487,000 ha in 1948 and to 6,313,000 ha in 1971, hence a drop of 163,000 ha over 33 years<sup>43</sup>. Here, too, a difference is made between "the forest fund" and "the forest area": the latter is said to decrease from 5,955,000 ha in 1938 to 5,897,000 ha in 1971, hence by 58,000 ha during the same interval. On 1 December 1918, when Transylvania united with Romania, the forest area was of 7,248,985 ha, accounting for 24.5 per cent of the total area of the country<sup>44</sup> while in 1930 forests spread over 5,955,000 ha only: during that 20-year interval the forest area decreased by 1,283,985 ha. This distressing conclusion is not far from that drawn by Emil Pop, ex-chairman of the Biology Section of the Academy of the Socialist Republic of Romania, with a very sound knowledge of Romania's forests, who pointed out that "in 16 years from 1920 to 1935, about 1,280,000 ha of forests were felled, which amounts to nearly one fifth of our entire forest fund — figures which had never been reached before and which amazed even the foreign economists and sylviculturists who acted as observers"<sup>45</sup>.

How could such an unprecedented situation occur? It is due to predatory management and total improvidence, utter ignorance of state and private interests. The land reform enacted after World War I assigned 1,168,345 ha of forest land to satisfy the requirements for agricultural land of the peasants<sup>46</sup>. Had those hectares to be taken from the forest area? Had there been clear, scientifically substantiated concepts on grazing grounds, had stress been laid on the cultivation of fodder plants — lucerne, trefoil and Sudan grass —, had not those grazing grounds become fallow land, covered with thistles

<sup>43</sup> *Statistical Yearbook of the Socialist Republic of Romania*, 1972, p. 317.

<sup>44</sup> Preamble of the afore-mentioned 1930 law, in *Code*, I, p. 644–645.

<sup>45</sup> Pop, *op. cit.*, p. 19; Michel Devèze, in his *Histoire des Forêts*, estimates that the decrease in our national forests during the interwar period was of some "one million ha".

<sup>46</sup> Dinu, *Der rumänische Wald*, p. 29.



and thorns, the forest area designed for the afore-mentioned purposes could surely have been much smaller. The difference of 115,640 ha, between the total drop and the land allotted under the land reform, is accounted for by the fact that big joint-stock companies unscrupulously eluded reforestation whenever possible.

Yet there is another, no less distressing side of the question. In the interwar period, conifers were felled in the first place, especially spruce. The share of conifers in our timber exports increased steadily up to 1935, with spruce accounting for nearly 80 per cent. According to Emil Pop: "We have the regrettable reputation of being the country with the greatest number of sawmills compared to the capacity of our evergreen forests. The biggest sawmill in the world, with 27 frame saws, is to be found at Tălmaci, close to Sibiu, while the Molotov sawmill in the Siberian Taiga, has only 24 frame saws"<sup>47</sup>.

The Second World War and the land reform of 1945 also contributed to the decrease of the forest land. On the territory of the Cotești vine-growing commune (Vrancea county), the forest area accounted for 48 per cent of the total area in 1890, for 40.05 per cent in 1939 and for 24.8 per cent in 1971<sup>48</sup> — a 38.8 per cent decrease in the last 32 years.

South-east of Rimnicu Sărat, forests came down to Căiața; two small woods is all that is left now after the clearing: Crîngul Ursului and Crîngul Meiului.

The clump of thick elms — about a hundred years old in 1916 — which covered between one and two hectares at Stupina (Vrancea county) has been razed to the ground.

At Urluia, in the south of Dobruja, the entire slope of a hill was cleared of its forest and it lies bare to this day, with sparse shrubs alone. The plantation of acacia and different hardwoods at Comarova, north of Mangalia, was cleared over several dozen metres in width to yield place to the railway along the seashore. In the Bărăgan plain several acacia plantations have been obliterated, people not understanding the part they had to play. Other examples may be given from all over Romania's territory, all of them illustrating the steady decrease of the forest area.

The interwar period witnessed an unjustified consumption of fuelwood — particularly beech but also, though to a smaller extent, Turkey oak and Hungarian oak. In 1929 state-owned forests yielded 1,636,000 cu.m of industrial wood and 5,892,000 cu.m of fuelwood<sup>49</sup>.

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<sup>47</sup> Pop, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

<sup>48</sup> Petre Ripeanu, *Economic Development*, in Cotești, p. 50.

<sup>49</sup> Drimbă, *Etude*, p. 21.

It was only towards the end of this period that steps were taken to increase the use of other fuels: briquettes, methane gas. This trend greatly increased after 23 August 1944 and especially since 1948 when wood, that noble material, has started being valued as it should be.

Several forms of forest management were experimented during the interwar period. The Forestry Board of the Ministry of Agriculture and Domains continued its existence. An experiment was made using an autonomous management finally to revert to direct administration by the ministry. But this did not check the decrease in the forest patrimony of the country nor the continued imbalance between the felling rate and the annual growth rate.

After the nationalization of 1948, wood became increasingly more valuable and forest management was assigned greater importance. A Ministry of Forest Economy was formed, to keep pace with the complexity of lumbering and of woodworking. One of the boards is concerned with game and fishing in mountain streams.



As regards replanting and reforestation, the old practices continued in part, especially during the first years after 1918. Joint-stock companies did not always fulfil their obligations, preferring to lose the security they had deposited. After 1934, afforestation under state supervision started improving<sup>50</sup>. Yet, the reforestation drive was intensified substantially only after nationalization. Extensive nurseries were set up, 25 of them, their areas varying between 30 and 100 ha each, with a sapling output far above that of the previous nurseries<sup>51</sup>. Various varieties of trees were planted along the roads: poplars, ashes and walnut-trees. By 1960 the re-forested area was of 78,649 ha<sup>52</sup>, but in 1970 it was of 52,679 ha only.

Afforestation of degraded land reached 8,171 ha in 1962 to decrease to 1701 ha by 1970. Altogether, during the 1948–1973 interval “over 1.3 million ha were afforested, priority being given to the 700,000 deforested ha taken over after 1948”<sup>53</sup>. The reforestation of degraded land is of the utmost importance not only for Romania, but also for all countries possessing wooded areas, both in Europe and on other continents. Everywhere fast-growing varieties of trees are planted, which should supply not only pulp wood for paper

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<sup>50</sup> Pop, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

<sup>51</sup> Suder, *Forest Economy*, p. 15.

<sup>52</sup> *Statistical Yearbook, 1971*, p. 466–467.

<sup>53</sup> Vasile Patilineț, *Forests*, in “*Tribuna României*,” II (1973), No. 14 of June 1st, p. 4.

making, but also building timber. The regeneration of the "green gold" is a most acute and yet unsolved problem everywhere, with the felling rate always exceeding the regeneration rate — a fact for some time now which may lead in a foreseeable and not very distant future, to a wood and paper crisis similar to the petroleum crisis.

Reforestation is needed also for another reason. Wherever a forest has been felled and no replanting has been carried out, the flow of rainwater being unchecked becomes torrential, sweeping downhill the layer of humus on the floor. The slopes of hills and mountains are thus gullied and before long turn into degraded land and into torrential basins. Storage lakes for hydropower plants gradually become clogged with the deposits of earth washed down from the slopes.

In a couple of years a storage lake of six million cubic metres capacity may be filled to the extent of one third. The only way out is to reforest without delay all degraded land, and to initiate national management of the forests in those basins.

The essential problem today is to establish a constant balance between the annual felling rate and the rate of natural forest growth. Felling more trees than the annual growth allows results in constant shrinking of the forest patrimony, a decrease of the forest area and of the heritage left to our followers. We have been living on our capital instead of being content with its annual product. This is defective and self-centred management which portends distressing consequences. An objection might be raised to this: the population having steadily increased, more tillable and pasture land was needed, and so we had to encroach on forests. The objection is unfounded: the real reason was the lust for large fast-got profit under the capitalist system, and lack of co-ordination, of proportion between production and consumption under the socialist system, consumption being understood to mean exports as well as supplies to the woodworking factories and satisfaction of the population's requirements for building and work timber and fuelwood. The provisions of the National Programme for the Conservation and Development of the National Forests over the 1976—2010 period forbid tree felling above the annual growth rate, no exception whatever being made. This is the only way of the future of our forest patrimony and of laying the foundations of a sound forest economy. At the nation-wide conference of silviculturists in October 1974, President Nicolae Ceaușescu spelled out: "Let us on no account admit any felling above normal; let us ensure appropriate annual growth of the national forests"<sup>54</sup>. The

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<sup>54</sup> "România Liberă" of October 10th 1974, p. 3.



enlightened patriotism and the provident spirit of the President of the Socialist Republic of Romania have brought about the working out of the afore-mentioned law and its firm, unswerving application.



After the union with Transylvania, nature reserves and national parks started being created. In 1925 the Slătioara Forest taking up 671.11 ha was turned into a nature reserve. Its area was reduced to 295.28 ha in 1931, but another 292.92 ha were added on Mount Giumălău<sup>55</sup>. Spreading on the south-eastern slope of the Rarău Massif in the most picturesque part of the Carpathians of Bucovina, the Slătioara Forest, made up of monumental, secular trees, also shelters fine game.

Owing to excessive hunting and to poaching the game that our forests and mountains boasted of — lynx, stag, chamois, bear, mountain cock — had greatly decreased in number, and were in danger of disappearing altogether, as had *Bos primigenius*, *Bison europaeus*, *Alces alces*, *Castor fiber* in the previous centuries. For this reason, certain species of game could be shot only with special license and on the other hand, nature reserves, natural parks and dendrological parks had to be created where both trees and game were protected by law. A number of such parks and reserves date from the interwar period, but most of them were created after World War II. Reserves and parks in 1974 numbered 257. We will limit ourselves to citing the most important ones. First and foremost the complex *Rețezat National Park* taking up 20,000 ha. It includes forests, grassy tablelands in the mountains, lakes on the sites of ancient glaciers, as well as animals and plants and was decreed to be a national park in 1935, after intensive and well argued propaganda<sup>56</sup>. Then: the complex reserves of Mount Cozia of 5,547 ha in Vilcea county, not far from the Călimănești—Sălătrucel localities; “Făgăraș (Moldovanu-Capra)”, including the highest peak in the Romanian Carpathians, north of Arefu; three complex Bucegi reserves in the Bucegi Mountains, 3,849.8 ha in the Sinaia—Bușteni—Azuga area, 2,050.3 ha in the Moroieni area, and 1,839.9 ha close to Bran—Zărnești; Lake Snagov of 1,727 ha; and Domogled in Banat not far from Băile Herculane spa, taking up 1,132 ha and boasting filberts and sweet

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<sup>55</sup> I. Poclitaru, *Present Condition and Importance of the Slătioara Centuries Old Forest*, in “Codrii Bucovinei,” IV (1933—1934), p. 3—11. In 1974 this reserve amounted to 609 ha.

<sup>56</sup> See Al. Borza, *The Rețezat, Romania's National Park of the Future*, in “Carpații,” I (1933), 12, pp. 2—8.

chestnut-trees as well as a fair number of trees and shrubs marking the transition to the Mediterranean flora. The "Izvoarele Nerei" — Beuşniţa complex reserve of 3,368 ha is also in Banat, not far from Sasca Montană. In Transylvania, are to be found the "Lacul Roşu — Cheile Bicazului" complex reserve of 960.8 ha in the neighbourhood of the town of Gheorghieni, the "Crişul Repede Defile" of 147 ha close to Vadul Crişului; and "Pietrosu Rodnei" of 3,068 ha near the south-east border of Maramureş, the nearest localities being Borşa and Moisei. In Moldavia, we mention the "Ceahlău-Poliţa cu crini" complex reserve of 3,489 ha and "Cheile Bicazului" of 2,219 ha.

Among forest reserves proper, there are Slătioara and Valea Putnei — Giumalău, the secular forest of Glodeanu, which takes up 528 ha in the Doftana Valley, Prahova county; the century-old forest of Bogata in the vicinity of the town of Rupea (Braşov county); the Latoriţa Forest of 650 ha in the Mălaia area, Vilcea county; the Dragomirna beech forest of 131 ha in Suceava county; the Frasinu and Spătaru forests of 153.20 and 164.40 ha, respectively (Buzău county); Luncăviţa of 154.20 ha, and Letea of 298.70 ha in Tulcea county; Dumbrăveni of 359 ha and Canaraua Fetei of 168 ha in the county of Constanţa.

Special mention should be made of the dendrological parks of Mihăileşti (69.2 ha — in Argeş county), Hemeiuş (48.5 ha) and Doftana, in Bacău county. This side of the Carpathians they are the counterpart of the Simeria dendrological park to which as from February 1965, have been added the scientific reserve of the Dosul Laurului (Gura Honţ, Arad county) taking up 28.7 ha, and the dendrological gardens of the Sylvicultural Faculty of Braşov. Apart from their comprehensive collections of autochthonous and exotic trees, these parks stand out by selected forest seeds for nurseries, and ornamental conifer saplings.

We think it fit to name among the natural parks of the country, also "Măgura Odobeştilor" with its extensive oak forest and the Răiuţul Small Eden) Mountain in the Milcov Valley. The Cotmeana oak forest (Argeş county) ranks among the most beautiful forests of the country, being perhaps the loveliest oak forest.

Proof of the growing interest in wood is also the setting up in 1967 of the Wood Museum at Cimpulung Moldovenesc. Wood exhibits had been on display also before in the various ethnographic museums of the country, Cluj, Iaşi, Sibiu and Sighet as well as at the Village Museum in Bucharest, but now for the first time a museum is devoted exclusively to wood. With its more than one thousand nine hundred exhibits, among which "a collection of wheels chipped

out of one single piece of wood”<sup>57</sup>, as well as a cart some four hundred years old used for the transportation of wine — the only cart of its kind to have been preserved to date<sup>58</sup> — the Cîmpulung Moldovenesc museum is not only a draw for tourists, but also an important means of information on the “wood civilization” which has governed rural life on the Carpatho-Danubian territory for centuries. Wooden exhibits have also ample room at the Ethnography Museum in Sighet.

The Teleajen Valley Museum at Cheia (Prahova county) displays “forest diseases and pests”: 1. bacterioses; 2. scurf; 3. insects; 4. fungi; 5. lichens.

Speaking of tree diseases, a most serious one is that which afflicts elms not only in Romania, but throughout Europe, causing them to dry. All the attempts made so far to control the disease have been fruitless. For other tree diseases, spraying or atomizing from the air has been used for the last three decades. This offers the advantage of covering wide areas as well as of reaching the tree tops, which would hardly be accessible in any other way.

The condition of lumbermen has been improved. Whereas during the 1919–1944 period lumbermen’s condition of life and work was a question of minor interest — a considerable change was made after 23 August 1944 and a radical change after the nationalization of forests, when both living and working conditions were improved. Portable power saws were introduced greatly facilitating the felling of trees, previously done by means of axes and back-saws; ropeways were moreover used to haul logs and tractors and lorries for transportation along forest roads. Labour productivity thus increased and so did specialization, and the lumberman’s effort, formerly exhausting, has been minimized. The importance of the new forest roads should here be underlined. Roads have opened up sealed forest basins to which no access could previously be had and where the old trees, which age and storms had brought down, rotted on the spot, considerable quantities of quality timber, especially beech, spruce and fir, thus being lost.

Another salient feature of lumbering in the last decades has been the increase in the amount of industrial wood compared with the overall wood output. From 49.1 per cent in 1951, the percentage had risen to 70 per cent by 1965 to further rise to nearly 75 per cent in the following years. The rise by varieties of timber was the following: beech — from 27.2 per cent in 1951 to 63 per cent in 1965;

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<sup>57</sup> Petre Mihai Băcanu, in “România Liberă” of September 13th, 1973, p. 7.

<sup>58</sup> Elena Găină, *The Wood Museum of Cîmpulung Moldovenesc*, in “Contemporanul,” November 3rd, 1972, p. 8.



oak — from 44.9 per cent to 60.2 per cent; other varieties — inferior ones — from 7.6 per cent to 51.7 per cent. The share of the different varieties in the net marketable timber volume has also changed. Thus, softwoods, which accounted for 35.5 per cent in 1950, decreased to 32.2 per cent in 1966; on the contrary, the beech went up from 41.5 per cent to 43.5 per cent, oak from 8.5 per cent to 9.2 per cent and other varieties of timber, from 14.5 per cent to 15.1 per cent.

The development assumed by the woodworking mills is altogether remarkable. A substantial part of the more than 10,000 million lei state-invested during the 1948–1965 period were earmarked to the construction of such factories. In 1966 some 1,600 million lei were invested for the development of the forest industry<sup>59</sup>. The basic principle throughout was to increase substantially the value of processed timber compared with that of unprocessed timber — a principle which is in fact applied to all raw materials. Instead of exporting sawn timber, it is much more profitable to export paper, furniture, blockboards, veneer, musical instruments, matches, chipboards and fireboards, etc.

Another principle which had not been taken into account in former days is that no particle of wood should be lost; everything, down to the smallest twigs, can and must be used. In consequence, chipboard and fibreboard factories were built, the latest version being fibreboard melamine, coated on both sides, as turned out by the Lumbering and Wood Industrialization Combine at Suceava.

*Forestry education.* In the interwar period, special attention was given to the university training of forestry engineers. A silvicultural department was set up as part of the Polytechnic School. After 23 August 1944 a Sylviculture Faculty was set up in Braşov, and a number of secondary and technical schools were created for forestry foremen and technicians. Four forestry high schools were set up, specializing in silviculture, lumbering, forest transport and constructions, wood industrialization, apart from 21 vocational schools, 17 technical foremen's schools and 10 schools for technical staff. The afore-mentioned schools have trained skilled workers and foremen for factories turning out sawn timber, parquetry, plywood and veneer, chipboard and fireboard, musical instruments, rowing boats, furniture, pencils and matches, casks, and barrels, as well as the technicians needed for the building of forest roads. Altogether, 13,233 skilled workers and 3,078 foremen and technicians were trained in those schools from the time when they were set up to 1966<sup>60</sup>.

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<sup>59</sup> Suder, *Forest Economy*, p. 10, 23, 26, 27, 30, 31.

<sup>60</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 78.

Being well trained and having an experience of long standing in the branch, Romanian silviculturists are in request abroad.

In 1973, a number of scientific researchers of the Forestry Research, Design and Documentation Institute in Bucharest took part in specialized work in Asia and Africa. An expert was sent in the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen with a view to organizing the afforestation of arid land. Another expert went to Irak in order to give technical and scientific assistance in the drive for the planting of fast growing varieties of trees, in the first place of poplars. A number of researchers were invited to countries of Central Africa, among which the Republics of Zair, Nigeria and Guinea. They had to determine the output of the forests which supply raw material for the woodworking factories in those countries and also to indicate reforestation methods. Members of the staff of the Faculty of Silviculture and Lumbering in Braşov are teaching in the Democratic People's Republic of Algeria and in the Zair Republic.

## FOREST LAWS

*The first official regulation of the forest regime on the Carpatho-Danubian territory was recorded in Transylvania, in 1781, followed by Bucovina, in 1786, Moldavia, in 1792, and Wallachia in 1793.*

Forest laws are an achievement of the modern age. As long as forests were numerous and extensive and the population sparse, no need was felt to bring the utilization of forests under regulation. Villagers would take building timber for their cottages, fuelwood and even wood for sale from the forest, while the owner was content to receive a tithe. The first attempt at such regulations I know of — apart from those concerning forest preserves — is found in the decision of the Focșani convention whereby on 29 May 1706 boundary suits were to be decided on by a joint commission of Wallachian and Moldavian officials. The document reads<sup>1</sup>: "Wallachians are not to get into the forests of Moldavia, unless the Moldavians think it fit to allow this; and not being willing to do so, they shall keep them out. Only on coming to an agreement with the owners of the forests shall they be allowed to cut wood while if no such permission is given, let them keep from cutting wood in those forests." Actually, it was not so much a regulation as the laying down of a principle similar to that ruling in forest preserves: nobody was allowed to cut wood without the owner's permission.

The first official regulation of the forest regime on the Carpatho-Danubian territory was made in Transylvania, in 1781, followed by Bucovina, in 1786, Moldavia, in 1792, and Wallachia, in 1793. In Dobrudja a regulation was issued only in 1870. The regulation concerning Transylvania's forests was worked out during the reign of Emperor Joseph II<sup>2</sup>. After the Emperor's death, however, laws were enacted in 1791, under which the landowners alone had any right to forests and were entitled to claim the forests of freeholders'

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<sup>1</sup> Academy, *Romanian Documents*, LXXIV 35.

<sup>2</sup> Already in 1703 there was a plan for the investigation of the forests of Transylvania by the Vienna Emperor's envoys. (Hurmuzaki-Iorga, *Documents*, XV, 2, p. 1498). On the Turkish Regulations on Dobrudjan forests see Vasile Sabău, *Evolution of Forest Economy in Romania*, Bucharest, 1946, p. 285—288.



villages<sup>3</sup>. The regulation concerning Bucovina's forests was printed in both German and Romanian, and comprised 12 chapters<sup>4</sup>. The first chapter provides for "the manner of keeping forests in good order, of using and cutting them." It is laid down that "the owner of forests...should cut as much wood every year as the forest can grow in a year; and acting otherwise, he offends against the regulation and causes his followers or heirs to be deprived of wood." The notion of forest parcelling out is thus introduced, whereby forest regeneration should be guaranteed, a notion which is to be enlarged upon in chapter two. Chapter three lists the varieties of trees, showing what can be made out of their wood. Chapter four: "collecting forest seeds, keeping and sowing them." Chapter five: the need for "good and well trained" forest guards. Chapter six deals with warding off mistakes and dangers such as forest fires, tree debarking, cutting leaves for sheep and goats, raking moss off trees. Chapter seven: "order to keep off goats and sheep." Chapter eight: "on glass manufactories, iron mines and the making of potash or ash concoctions." Chapter nine: "on the forests owned by the boroughs... by the freeholders." Chapter ten: "on church forests." Chapter eleven: "punishment laid down...for those who injure and encroach upon forests." Chapter twelve: "cutting of mountain forests." The definitions given for the various kinds of trees, showing what they may be used for, are most interesting. The time when wood should be cut in the forest is winter, according to the Regulation; timber wood in December and January, while fuel wood in February as well. If, however, the wood is to be rafted, it should be cut in May, June and July, when it is filled with sap, and it should be barked<sup>5</sup>.

On 29 April 1786, Emperor Joseph II decreed the setting up of the Romanian Orthodox Church Fund of Bucovina, which grouped all the forests owned by the monasteries of that new Austrian province, that was to be administered separately. In those secular forests spruce ranked first (107,973 ha, 47.87 per cent), followed by fir (58,742 ha, 26.07 per cent), beech (43,244 ha, 19.19 per cent); hornbeam (6,197 ha, 2.75 per cent) and oak (2,704 ha, 1.20 per cent). The remainder 2.92 per cent were accounted for by other varieties of trees. Those forests were carefully managed: in 1875 forest regulations were introduced which had been in force in Galicia as early as 1872; forest ranges were moreover set up, their number rising to 32 by 1922. Lumbering was at first carried out by means of water-

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<sup>3</sup> A. Csetri and St. Imreh, *On Feudal Ownership Relations in Transylvania (1750-1848)*, in "Anuarul Institutului de Istorie din Cluj," II (1966), p. 119.

<sup>4</sup> See *Forest Regulations*.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 12, 146.

driven sawmills, which amounted to 29 in 1834. Exploitation was intensified when sawn timber mills were set up <sup>6</sup>.

A somewhat similar organization was that of the forests belonging to the villages from which the imperial frontier regiments were recruited in the regions of Bistrița-Năsăud, Sibiu-Orlat and Banat. The Bistrița-Năsăud frontier guards' forests, which belonged to 44 communes, covered 147,043.42 ha, averaging 3,342 ha per commune. Up to 1890 the management of those forests was left to the respective communes, which, in the opinion of a number of experts, induced their "large-scale devastation." A Hungarian law of 1890 laid down that forests should be managed by a special forestry board, which was preserved until 1926. A new organization, Regna (the Năsăud Frontier Regiment), was then created, to be replaced on 1 October 1933, after a period of mismanagement with a deficit of 25 million, by the Autonomous Fund of State Forests <sup>7</sup>. The frontier guards' community of Banat, with its offices in Caransebeș, owned forests, glades, pasture lands and treeless mountain areas, amounting to 251,919 "iugăre," \* as well as a number of buildings and plots of land in Caransebeș, Băile Herculane, Ohaba-Bistra, Teregova, Orșova and Bozovici <sup>8</sup>.

In Moldavia, on 28 November 1792 Prince Alexandru Moruzi endorsed the report "on forests, groves, coppices and riverside woods." <sup>9</sup> On 28 November 1794 an ordinance was issued on the decisions reached with the public council for the guard of coppices, groves, riverside woods and forests in full growth <sup>10</sup>. The preamble shows that owing to reckless felling "many coppices and woods, and forests in full growth have almost been turned into fields, as everyone knows and sees, for in Soroca county there had formerly been coppices as thick as forests and now there is no trace of them left; likewise in Covurlui county, there were forests in full growth, which were of very good use; for when there was an order for prompt delivery of timber for the needs of Tsargrad or of the fortresses, it was there that they found the timber, and very easily it went down to the

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\* one iugăr = 0.5775 ha.

<sup>6</sup> Silviu Dimitrovici, *History and Organization of the Forests of the Romanian Orthodox Church Fund of Bucovina*, Cernăuți, 1922, p. 7, 8, 10, 11, 17, 30, 34.

<sup>7</sup> Șt. Demetrescu-Girbovi, *The Frontier Guards' Forests in the Năsăud County* in "Revista pădurilor," LVIII (1936), 3, p. 148, 153.

<sup>8</sup> *What is the Caransebeș Community of Frontier Guards' Property*, Lugoj, 1944, p. 11. The forest proper take up 216,068.24 "iugăre" (one iugăr = 5775 sq.m).

<sup>9</sup> Academy Romanian manuscript 95, f. 91-95 (former pagination, p. 179-187).

<sup>10</sup> Academy, Rom. ms. 91, f. 76v - 77v (former pagination, p. 138-140). See a Rosetti, *The Land*, p. 478-483.

ports, and now there is nothing there but fields ; only a few shrubs are left ; and the name applies to other big forests and riverside woods in various counties." Consequently, it was necessary to take measures in order to preserve existing forests. The six chapters laid down in the first place that "it should be forbidden to damage woods and coppices on any account, and the owners of the estates should protect them and guard them." If anyone cuts wood for sewn timber, or poles, props, sticks for hoops, or twigs, he must pay a tithe to the owner of the forest. But if the villagers cut timber to make houses for themselves on the estate where they settled or for the church, they were exempted from the tithe. Wild fruit-trees were not to be cut "for firewood or for any other use." Nobody was to feed one's boars in the forest on beech nuts or acorns without having previously come to an agreement with the owner of the forest. On the fuelwood taken by the villagers "from the trees fallen to the ground" no tithe was to be paid<sup>11</sup>. This regulation restricted the old rules on forests, especially as regards share-croppers, and was renewed on 29 December 1794<sup>12</sup>. The land regulation issued by the same prince on 3/15 January 1805, with 22 chapters, also amounts to a restriction of the sharecroppers' right to use hayfields, pasture land and forests<sup>13</sup>. Chapter six reads : "two cartfuls of fuelwood are to be brought to the landowner's manor every year by each villager possessed of a cart and oxen." Those who owned no cart and no oxen "should not take any trouble." A similar obligation had existed for long in Transylvania. Prince Ioan Caragea's "Law Register" of 1818 also stipulated that sharecroppers were to bring at Christmas a cartful of forest wood to the landowner's manor or to another place, at a distance of at most six hours' drive<sup>14</sup>.

The Moldavian law of 1843 for forest conservancy established lumbering rules for monastery-owned forests, to prevent the abuse and illicit gains that had prevailed before. The new rules were mostly copied from the French forest laws<sup>15</sup>.

Forests covered a considerable share of the overall area of monastery property : 694,525 acres in Wallachia, i.e. nearly a quarter of the total of 2,802,977.5 acres<sup>16</sup>.

In Wallachia in 1848, the representatives of the peasantry in the Commission for land reform, had proposed that the villagers

<sup>11</sup> Academy, Rom. ms. 95, f. 179—187.

<sup>12</sup> Academy, Rom. ms. 91, f. 138—141.

<sup>13</sup> See the text of the ordinance in Rosetti, *op. cit.*, p. 488—496.

<sup>14</sup> *Caragea's Law. A Critical Edition*, Bucharest, 1955, p. 44 ; Const. C. Giurescu, *Caragea's Law. An Unknown First Draft*, Bucharest, 1923, p. 55.

<sup>15</sup> See preamble to the Romanian Forest Code of April 8th 1910, in *Code*, p. 39.

<sup>16</sup> *Statistical Yearbooks*, Bucharest, 1861, p. 70—71.



living in the mountains and those who plied a trade should be allotted 8 acres (*pogoane*), as follows: half an acre for a house, two and a half acres of pasture land, an acre and a half of ploughland, two acres of wooded land and an acre and a half of hayfields<sup>17</sup>. No results ensued at the time as the Commission was dissolved by the revolutionary government itself. In 1851, however, measures were taken whereby cattle grazing was permitted in the forests and the peasants were allowed to get wood for their needs. These measures improved the condition of the peasantry, but they had unfavourable consequences as regards forest conservancy.

Under Prince Cuza, during N. Cretzulescu's administration (June 1862 – October 1863), measures were taken to reorganize the School of Sylviculture and it was decided that nurseries should be set up on state-owned lands<sup>18</sup>. No Forest Code was worked out, though a Civil Code and a Penal Code were. When the Rural Law of 1864 was drawn up, some amendments introduced by the State Council on 11/23 and 12/24 August, benefitted the peasantry (smaller indemnification to the landowner and extended term of payment) and some landowners; the expropriated area could not exceed two-thirds of the estate area, but "forest were not reckoned in."<sup>19</sup> This last provision favoured especially the owners of mountainous and hilly land, where forests were more numerous. The Rural Law also laid down that the villagers' right to wooded land was to be preserved for a 15-year period after which landowners were entitled to demand to be freed from this charge either by reaching an understanding or by an enforceable judgement.

In 1872, under the "law on the management of state-owned lands," the Sylvicultural Department was entrusted with the task of "managing and watching over forests."<sup>20</sup> In 1873 Petre Mavrogheni, Minister of Finance, tabled a Draft Forest Code which was passed by the Chamber of Deputies, but not by the Senate. It was only in 1881 that a Forest Code was enacted: it was passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 16 May and by the Senate on 9 June, it was promulgated on 19 June, published in "Monitorul Oficial" on 24 June, and was in force until 1910, when a new Forest Code superseded it. The 1881 Code provided for the parcelling out of the forests to be exploited.

The way the parcelling out was effected is illustrated by the case of the Boișteia Forest, part of the Căiuți Complex that stretched

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<sup>17</sup> See Zane, *Texts*, p. 424.

<sup>18</sup> Giurescu, *Prince Cuza*, p. 142.

<sup>19</sup> *Acts and Laws*, first series, vol. II, p. 855; Giurescu, *op. cit.*, p. 279, 282

<sup>20</sup> Russescu, *Afforestations*, p. 40, 181.

on both banks of the river Trotuş<sup>21</sup>. At the time, the Ministry did not have a sufficient number of experts to effect the parcelling out of all the forests of the country, nor was there a sufficient number of officials qualified to perform a check up. Consequently, the application of the new Forest Code came up against great difficulties for many years on account of staff shortage.

In Transylvania, the Hungarian law in force since 1879 laid down that the forests owned by the state, public establishment and certain joint-stock companies could only be exploited in compliance with parcelling out aimed at forest regeneration. Privately owned forests, however, were subject to no restriction, whatever the productive area and could even be cleared altogether. Grazing was forbidden in protective belts only<sup>22</sup>. During World War I, private forests were exploited to the utmost and numerous sawmills were set up. The Hungarian government issued therefore ordinance No. 3296 of 1918, under which no forest could be exploited without an authorization of the forestry department, which established what area could be cleared annually, considering the reforestation capacity of the exploited plots.

The 1881 Forest Code amended by the laws of 4 June 1892 and 22 March 1896 was replaced by the Forest Code of 8 April 1910<sup>23</sup>. This meant a step forward and yet it did not subject all the forests of the country to the same regime, discriminating in favour of most of the privately owned forests. No forest subjected to the forest system could be exploited except in compliance with a parcelling out plan or with exploitation rules approved by an official body. Forest owners were obliged to deposit a security with the Ministry of Agriculture and of Public Property as a guarantee of afforestation. Forest clearing was forbidden except for extreme cases.

At first sight, the 1920 Forest Code seems to take every measure to ensure rational exploitation of forests and regeneration of the exploited forests. In fact, however, it leaves possibilities of interpretation and makes an unjustified discrimination. Lowland forests were not subjected to the forest system if the wooded area exceeded 25 per cent of the district. Forests on the hills that do not belong to "mountain districts" were excepted from the provisions of the Forest Code. No uniform régime was applied to all the forests

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<sup>21</sup> Bucharest State Archives, *Boundary Regulations*, Bacău county, No. 4, of 1884, f. 5v, 16. On forest parcelling out, see also Avram Cristache, *Parcelling out of Forests*, in the volume *Sidelights on Forest Economy in the Romanian People's Republic*. Bucharest, 1964, p. 60–70.

<sup>22</sup> Drîmbă, *Aperçu*, p. 15.

<sup>23</sup> Published in *Code*, vol. II, p. 95–140.

of the country. The 25 per cent clause could be easily interpreted to suit one's interest as the area of a district was not marked out exactly. The result of this discrimination, most probably introduced at the suggestion of landowners possessing vast forests in the plain and in the hills, was devastation of the wooded lowland and especially of the oak and beech forests on the hills of Moldavia, Oltenia and Wallachia. Nor was the afforestation security clause effective in many cases. Indeed, everything hinged on the sum to be paid per hectare; if that sum was smaller than the actual afforestation expenses, the exploiter, who was often a lessee or one who made of forest exploitation a profession, preferred to give up the security, for this was the more profitable course to follow. As a rule, the security was of 20—30 lei in gold per hectare while afforestation expenses rose to 80—100 lei in gold per hectare <sup>24</sup>.

After the union of Transylvania with Romania (1 December 1918), in Transylvania ordinance No. 3296 remained in force until 1923 when the application of the 1910 Code was extended throughout Romania's territory <sup>25</sup>.

While preparations were in progress for the application of the land reform decree, in October 1919 the Programme of the Peasant Party came out, stipulating "socialization" of forests, mines and oil <sup>26</sup>. The Programme had no immediate results, but the idea of "socialization" i.e. of nationalization, gained ground.

Between 1920 and 1930 a number of laws were enacted on forests and the necessary staff, but no new Forest Code was worked out. On 24 September 1920 the law on common pasture land was issued, aimed at sparing forests by the use of meadows, mountain tablelands and the Danube and Prut flooded areas as grazing ground <sup>27</sup>. In 1923 the Law on the Organization of the Forestry Staff replaced the law of 10 September 1920. The new law made provisions for the training of specialized staff, engineers, forestry supervisors, forest rangers and forest guards <sup>28</sup>.

The law of 1 July 1924 resulted in the restriction of the forest area by expropriating a number of forests in order to meet current requirements for fuelwood and building timber of the population in the countryside. The Regulations for the application of the law

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<sup>24</sup> Dinu, *Der rumänische Wald*, p. 28.

<sup>25</sup> Drimbă, *Aperçu*, p. 15—16.

<sup>26</sup> Aron Petric, *General Features of Romania's Development in the First Interwar Decade*, in "Cumidava," II (1968), p. 323.

<sup>27</sup> Published in "Monitorul Oficial", No. 138 of 1920, republished in *Code*, p. 404—431.

<sup>28</sup> *Code*, I, p. 478—534, 565—582.



were published in "Monitorul Oficial" of 16 April 1925. We do not know for certain what was the areas expropriated, but it is certain that the wooded area was again reduced substantially as the law provided for thousands of villages. It was also in 1924 that the Regulations for the Outside Forestry Service were approved. The following year a law was issued amnestying the forest offences committed, by the inhabitants of the Moji Land, from 2 November 1918 (when collapse of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy began) to 31 August 1924 (this date marking Avram Iancu's centenary) <sup>29</sup>.

In 1930 a Law on Forest Administration was enacted providing for two great boards: The General Board of the Autonomous Fund of State Forests and The Forest System Board, which carried out general control over the application of the Forest Code <sup>30</sup>. Consequently the Autonomous Fund of State Forests (C.A.P.S.) was set up, which was a "public commercial administration," as the Legislative Council described it, and the "Forest Fund" created in compliance with the Forest Code of 1910 was dissolved. A second law passed in 1930 was the law on the "amendment of degraded land," which provided for afforestation and torrent correction <sup>31</sup>. In 1933 a law was issued "on the complementary measures necessary for the utilization of the communal pasture land that had formerly been woodland" which was bound up with the law of 1 July 1924. On 8 March 1933, a law was issued on the parcelling out of the state-owned forests in the vicinity of Bucharest. Under this law the Ministry of Agriculture and Domains ceded the Mayor's Office of the Municipality of Bucharest 300 hectares of the "Pustnicul" wood to serve as a place of "entertainment and relaxation" for the Bucharest population. The municipality was to build access roads, a restaurant, etc. <sup>32</sup> This broad-leaved forest with oaks and lime-trees has become a place of relaxation for Bucharesters, the same as the Băneasa forest. Two more laws were issued in 1935. The Law on Protective Forests refers to the forests needed in order to maintain and fix the soil; the forests declared to be monuments of nature; the forests needed for purposes of hygiene, beauty and tourism, and for the mineral water springs in spas; the forests made up of timber of exceptional quality reserved for the national defence industry. The second law deals with forests necessary for strategic purposes, that is the

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<sup>29</sup> Decree No. 931 of March 10th 1925, published in "Monitorul Oficial," No. 56 of March 11th, 1925.

<sup>30</sup> This law of April 25th 1930 was re-published in *Code*, I, p. 670—690.

<sup>31</sup> *Code*, I, p. 705—728, cf. Drimbă, *Aperçu*, p. 16—17.

<sup>32</sup> *Code*, II, p. 197—198.

forests which by their position and size are likely to play a part in case of war, as they had repeatedly done in the past.

The fundamental political, economic and social changes wrought after August 1944 also had consequential effects in the sphere of forestry. The old Forest Code of 1910 was replaced by a new Forest Code issued on 29 December 1962<sup>33</sup>. Previously, however, Law No. 204 of 1947 had been passed on the protection of the forest area<sup>34</sup>. In the preamble to the law it is stated: "During the last 25 years, the destructive process of our forests has proceeded at a higher rate... : there are now more than one million hectares of completely degraded forests and the remainder yield a timber output altogether below that of similar forests in other countries."<sup>35</sup> Article 1 of the law considers as forests all wooded areas exceeding 2500 sq.m. The Constitution of 13 April 1948 lays down that all forests are state-owned. As the Forest Code of 1962 was unable to check the constant reduction of the forest area, on the initiative of President Nicolae Ceaușescu, the law of April 1976 adopted the "National Programme for the Conservation and Development of the Forest Area in the 1976–2010 Period" and, under article 3, provides for "rigorous and systematic control over the implementation of Programme provisions."

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<sup>33</sup> I. Zinveliu, *Forest Laws in the Socialist Republic of Romania*, Bucharest, 1971, p. 7.

<sup>34</sup> Published in "Monitorul Oficial," No. 140 of June 23<sup>rd</sup>, 1947.

<sup>35</sup> I. Zinveliu, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

## ON AFFORESTATION

*The first forest nurseries were set up in 1864 under Prince Cuza.*

Afforestation is a modern notion. In ancient times and in the Middle Ages forests were so vast and so numerous that it would never have occurred to anyone to re-timber cleared land. At the time, forests were cut to make room for arable land, hayfields, vineyards, orchards or bee gardens.

It was only in the 19th century that measures were taken with a view to afforestation. The first plantations were started in Western Europe, the best known and the most extensive being in south-western France in the Landes region. More than one million hectares were planted at the time with sea-pine, which changed the aspect of the district and created a genuine source of wealth<sup>1</sup>; by 1933 that forest yielded three million cubic metres of timber per year, which was half the total quantity of softwood in the country. The sawmills in the district employed ten thousand workers and there were also 18,000 resin-tappers.

No wonder that reforestation occurred in this country only in the 19th century. Foresters mentioned in Transylvanian documents as from the 12th century<sup>2</sup>, as well as the preserve guards, of whom mention was made for the first time in 14th century Moldavian documents<sup>3</sup>, were entrusted with the task of merely guarding the forest and not of replanting it.

During the reign of Stephen the Great, some forests were planted, yet not on formerly wooded land but on bare fields. After the victory in the Cosmin Forest, Polish prisoners were yoked and forced to plough a number of plots of land which were subsequently sown

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<sup>1</sup> Deffontaines, *L'homme et la forêt*, p. 161—162.

<sup>2</sup> See acts of 1169, 1181, 1231 in *D.I.R.*, C, 11th, 12th and 13th centuries, vol. I, p. 5, 8, 252.

<sup>3</sup> See the document of August 4th, 1400, issued by Alexander the Good, where the bridge of Dragomir, the preserve guard is mentioned (*D.I.R.*, 14th—15th centuries, p. 10).



with acorns. According to Neculce, woods grew as a reminder that enemies were not to harass Moldavia thenceforth: "Dumbrava Roşie" at Botoşani, at Cotnari and below Roman<sup>4</sup>. Stephen the Great's "red coppices" are also mentioned in Cantemir's *Descriptio Moldaviae*. There we are informed of forests planted on the western bank of the fish pond at Orhei<sup>5</sup>. That fish pond made by Prince Alexandru Lăpuşneanu was extended by Prince Vasile Lupu<sup>6</sup> and according to custom, banks were reinforced with trees.

It was during the reign of Barbu Ştirbei that for the first time measures were taken with a view to timbering. In 1852, Prince Ştirbei sought to fix the sand dunes on his estate at Băileşti in Oltenia by planting acacias and poplars<sup>7</sup>. But an official large-scale drive was only undertaken during the reign of Prince Cuza. He was strongly affected by the "constant plunder carried on in the state's forests"<sup>8</sup> and by the large-scale clearing, especially in the plains and in the hills. P.S. Aurelian, who in 1862 headed the agriculture division in the Ministry of Public Works was no less affected. It was consequently decided that forest nurseries should be set up as from 1 September 1862. For financial reasons, however, work only began in 1864, five nurseries being then set up, "three of them of a hundred acres each in Brăila, Iaşi and Ismail counties, and two, of fifty acres each, in the Vlaşca county, at Giurgiu, and in Ialomiţa county, in the Bărăgan plain." Out of the 160,120 lei allocated under the budget, only 77,046 lei were spent. The year after, the budget was reduced to 40,340 lei and the third year nothing was allocated, the reason given being that it was "more reasonable to have a nursery introduced in every primary agricultural school." On 28 November 1864, a general agricultural inspectorate was set up, with two inspectors who, among other assignments, were entrusted with the task "of inquiring into everything that relates to the planting of forests on barren land"; they were moreover to visit "agricultural schools... model farms and forest nurseries once a year" and to report on the number of saplings taken annually for plantations in the country<sup>9</sup>. It was a first try, which did not yield the expected results for there was no consistent application of the initial plan. The problem was

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<sup>4</sup> Neculce, *Chronicle of Moldavia*, p. 12.

<sup>5</sup> *Descriptio Moldaviae*, p. 79, 111, foot-note 2.

<sup>6</sup> Giurescu, *Fishery*, p. 154.

<sup>7</sup> M. Drăcea, *Beitrage zur Kenntniss der Robinie in Rumänien*, Bucharest, 1928, p. 7-8.

<sup>8</sup> See his letter to Prime Minister Bosianu on March 11/23rd 1863 (Academy, *Prince Cuza Archives*, vol. LII, p. 433-440).

<sup>9</sup> Russescu, *Afforestations*, p. 150, 162-163.

taken up again in 1882 when funds were earmarked for nurseries under the budget. The funds steadily increased, from 10,000 lei in gold during the financial year 1882—1883 to 20,000 lei in 1884—1885 and to 30,000 in 1885—1886 to reach 40,000 in 1886—1887 and the following year<sup>10</sup>. In 1883 a law was issued providing for the setting up of the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, Trade and Domains. Article 17 laid down that “the outside forest department made up of inspectors, sub-inspectors, general guards and secondary agents is entrusted the work relating to the exploitation, conservancy and extension of state forests.”<sup>11</sup> On the other hand, the law for the organization of Dobrudja provided for the constitution of commune forests out of the existing forest area and the planting of new forests on bare communal grounds. In 1884 there were 11,169 ha of communal forests, and 20,075 ha had still to be afforested. During the first years afforestation progressed at a snail’s pace in Dobrudja: in 1886 only 161 ha were sown and not over an uninterrupted expanse; there were 22 separate lots. As a result of the sustained drive of the following years, fairly extensive areas were planted on the quicksands of Oltenia as well as in the Bărăgan and in Dobrudja. Thus, 1750 ha were planted on the Dolj quicksands at Piscul Tunari during the 1884—1889 interval, and 750 ha at Ciuperceni during the 1886—1889 interval. In the Bărăgan, more exactly in Ialomița and Brăila counties, 3,850 ha were afforested on 14 state-owned estates over a five-year period. By 5 October 1895 quicksands had been planted over an area of 5,180 ha, of which 5,000 at Ciuperceni and Pescu Tunari<sup>12</sup>. Out of all the varieties of trees planted, acacias gave the best results: handsome specimens of impressive thickness and height can be seen to this day in Oltenia as well as in Dobrudja. Acacias are of North-American origin; they were brought to Europe in 1601 and reached Transylvania<sup>13</sup> in the 18th century. As shown by its ending<sup>14</sup>, the Romanian term *salcâm* is derived from Turkish, where it means “cluster.”<sup>15</sup> This is not the only word used for the tree: in Transylvania it is named *acaș*, and in Oltenia *mălin* or *dafin*, the latter term being also used on the right bank of the Danube in the Vidin district; in Banat the terms used are *măgrin* and *băgrîn*,

<sup>10</sup> G. Stănescu, *What Have We Done about Plantations?* in “Revista pădurilor,” 1887, p. 258.

<sup>11</sup> Russescu, *op. cit.*, p. 181, 193, 194.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 222—223.

<sup>13</sup> An acacia was planted in the Simeria Dendrological Park around 1760.

<sup>14</sup> Cf. *taclm* (cutlery) and *caldarlm* (pavement) also of Turkish origin.

<sup>15</sup> *Dictionnaire Universel Langenscheidt Turc-Français, Français-Turc* by Dr. H. Kornrumpf, under *salklm-grappe*.

and in Arad district *panăr* and *rug* <sup>16</sup>. In the area between the Danube and the Black Sea *acacia* has been successfully planted at Cara Omer, today Negru Vodă, not far from the southern border, and at Comorova, north of Mangalia, where other varieties of trees, grey oak among them, have also been planted with success.

But, reforestation was unable to make up for the decrease in the forest area. In a report of 4 September 1890 to the Ministry of Agriculture drawn up by C. Al. Orăscu, the decrease was estimated to some three million hectares during the previous 35-year interval <sup>17</sup>. The blame for it lies for the most part with the big companies which did not fulfil the obligations to reforest assumed under contract. In many cases, they did not mind losing the security, and consequently large areas, where splendid forests had once risen, were denuded, and the slopes of mountains and hills were gullied and became unfit for cultivation. We will give one example from the many similar cases: during the 1902–1906 interval it was approved that nine mountain forests should be felled and subsequently reforested. But out of the 21,745 hectares and 59 acres of wooded land, by 1 April 1906 only 867 hectares and 45 acres had been reforested.

The land reform that followed the First World War brought about a new decrease of the forest area. Although the exact figure is debatable it is certain that 110,000 ha of woodland at least were sacrificed as a result of the land reform <sup>18</sup>.

In 1918, when unitary national states such as Romania, Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia were built up, the new boundaries established by the Treaty of Trianon divided the river basins so that the highland was allotted to one state and the lowland to another. Articles 292 and 293 of the treaty laid down the ways and means of continuing the harnessing of streams begun before the end of 1918, either by the state or by the syndicates of the land-owners concerned. A standing technical commission was set up, made up of a representative of each of the states concerned, and of a chairman appointed by the League of Nations Council. In June 1935 at Sinaia, Romania's representative, engineer D. Drimbă well versed in forestry matters, submitted a report on the work carried out by the Romanian state in 1934. An aggregate area of 19,116 ha had been reforested in the exploited areas in the basins

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<sup>16</sup> Haralamb, *Cultivation*, p. 722. Concerning *acacias*, see also Drimbă, *Étude*, p. 135–137; Drăcea, *op. cit.*

<sup>17</sup> Haralamb, *op. cit.*, p. 426–429.

<sup>18</sup> Dinu, *Der rumänische Wald*, p. 29–30, see p. 112–115 on the discussion itself.



of the rivers Tisa, Someș, Criș, Mureș, Timiș, Caraș and Nera. The expenditure incurred amounted to 18,628,887 lei or 574,199 francs in gold, the number of saplings to 64,780,000 and the quantity of seeds to 8,136 hl and 1,341 kg. Furthermore, 1397 ha of degraded land were reforested, (506 ha state-owned and 891 privately owned), the expenditure amounting to 1,934,000 lei or 58,517 francs in gold. The number of nurseries set up at the time amounted to 275 with a cultivated area of 302.45 ha, out of which 170.20 ha for seeds and 132.25 ha for thinned out saplings. Out of the total nursery area, 193.96 ha were state-owned, 63.33 ha privately owned, but state managed, 41.35 ha were privately owned and 3.81 ha belonged to the Chambers of Agriculture. The expenditure was of 5,096,840 lei or 156,825 francs in gold. The number of saplings: 71,837,000, out of which 47,394,000 softwoods and 23,433,000 hardwoods. With a view to the reforestation of degraded land and the creation of protective belts, 12,000,000 saplings were distributed free of charge. Tree festivals — 1200 of them — were organized with schools and the army attending, on which occasion 2,291,000 saplings were planted. Altogether, 28,833,240 lei or 887,173 francs in gold were spent in 1934 on the work effected in the basins referred to in the Treaty of Trianon, the sum accounting for 65 per cent of the total reforestation expenditure for the whole country. From the time the Commission was set up, until the close of 1934, some 200 million lei, or 6,153,846 francs in gold, were spent on reforestation and torrent correction work<sup>19</sup>.

During the interwar period, protective belts were planted in order to check the strong steppe winds and to improve the micro-climate: most of them in the Bărăgan plain, and also along "Trajan's vallum," in the south of Moldavia and along the western shore of Lake Brateș. Very few were planted in Dobrudja<sup>20</sup>. The belts have proved useful for they have improved the crops behind them. Acacias were mostly used for the purpose, though other varieties of broad-leaved trees were also planted. The belts should be maintained as they help the real and permanent interests of Romanian agricultural economy.

It is also from the interwar period, namely from 20 April 1930, that dates the law "on tree planting along public roads, on pasture land and along their boundaries, and on public sites."<sup>21</sup>

<sup>19</sup> Drimbă, *Aperçu*, p. 18—22.

<sup>20</sup> In 1950 there were in Dobrudja only 786 hectares of protecting belts, most of them in the Tulcea county and the remainder in the Constanța county (Valeriu Dinu, *Forestry Problems of Dobrudja*, ms., 1951, p. 61—63.)

In Transylvania, under the Hungarian road law of 1890, paragraph 134, fruit-trees or certain broad-leaved varieties had already been planted along the roads. The 1930 law helped to embellish the landscape, especially in the flat areas, and moreover, to improve the micro-climate.

Another law issued on 1 July 1930 provided for the improvement of degraded land. Following rackless tree felling in the preceding century, without reforestation, subsequent gulying, faulty ploughing in certain hilly districts — along the slope instead of transversely, so that the humus slid down easily and the rock was laid bare — 6,751,457 ha or nearly 23 per cent of the 29,489,200 ha came to be considered untillable by 1923 <sup>22</sup>. The untillable area had decreased to 5,188,456 ha by 1925, and to 4,849,000 ha by 1928 <sup>23</sup>. If the last figure is accurate, the untillable, and consequently degraded area, accounted for about 16.44 per cent of the total area, which was a great deal. Thus the law was a matter of necessity.

During the years that preceded World War II the increase in the afforested area was a constant concern and both villages and towns were induced to join in the afforestation drive. It was at this time that the high hill on the eastern edge of the town of Birlad was timbered. The programme of the Lower Danube Region for 1939 provided for the creation of nurseries and of communal forests <sup>24</sup>. In the spring of 1941 the initiative was extended to all the country by order of the Ministry of the Interior. Unfortunately the initiative could not be carried through as Romania joined the war in the summer of the same year.

World War II resulted in a further decrease in the forest area, though no exact figure is available as yet. The reforestation drive was resumed in 1948 and has continued at a steady rate to date. Thus, in Vrancea county 34,000 ha were afforested during the 1948—1973 interval, 6,000 of the total being degraded land. In 1972, 84,000 ha were afforested throughout the country, and in 1973 85,490 ha, while the 1974 plan provided for the afforestation of 87,200 ha, out of which 72,700 ha in the forests administered by the Ministry

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<sup>22</sup> Published in *Code*, p. 692—704.

<sup>23</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 707. The figure seems to be exaggerated or erroneous as barely two years after, i.e. in 1925, it decreased to 5,118,486ha, consequently by 1,633,001 ha.

<sup>24</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>25</sup> See Const. C. Giurescu, *Ordinances and Circulars Concerning the Administration Programme of the Lower Danube Area*, Bucharest, 1939, p. 5—7 and 39—40; see also *The Administration of the Lower Danube Area*, Bucharest, 1939, *passim*.

of Forest Economy, 11,600 ha in the communal forests and 2,900 ha along the lines of communication<sup>25</sup>. An energetic and persistent afforestation action, together with the decision of the high party and state leaders to initiate as from 1974, for the first time in the history of our silviculture, strict felling of the normal quota and prohibition of exceeding the quota — are the pledges of a bright future for Romania's forests. Provided it is strictly applied, this decision will mark the beginning of a revival, in the forest area.

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<sup>25</sup> Filip Tomulescu, *A Drive of Nation-wide Interest: Afforestation*, in "România Liberă" of May 3rd 1974, p. 1.



## FOREST-PRODUCTS MANUFACTURING PLANTS

*The nationalization of industry on 11 June 1948 marked the beginning of a new age in woodworking.*

**Sawmills.** The small water-driven sawmills with one or two workers at most<sup>1</sup> were gradually superseded in the second half of the 19th century, when big steam-driven mills equipped with many frame saws came to employ a large number of workers.

No information is available on the "Company for the exploitation of Moldavia's forests" which a description of the country dating from 1835 places in Galați<sup>2</sup>; we do not know so far whether it was equipped with an industrial installation or was simply a banking concern. The 1863 statistical tables mention a steam-driven sawmill among the 608 existing ones<sup>3</sup>. In 1869, the Schwab & Prawatke mill of Galați was equipped with two steam engines and twenty machines being engaged in carpentry, joinery and lathe-turning operations<sup>4</sup>.

The greatest sawmill in Galați belonged to the Philip and Charles Goetz Joint-Stock Company, and was founded in 1872. Its output steadily expanded, from 380,693 cu.m. of sawn timber during the 1890—1891 financial year to 561,201 cu.m. in 1900—1901 and to 1,142,628 cu.m. in 1913—1914<sup>5</sup>. The number of workers employed increased accordingly, reaching 1200 at the beginning of 1914. Working conditions were arduous: 11 hours of work even for night shifts, for paltry wages. During the First World War exports decreased steeply and by February 1915 the number of workers dropped in consequence, going down to 150.

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<sup>1</sup> According to "Analele statistice", IV (1863), p. 100—101, 885 workers were employed in the 608 sawmills of Wallachia.

<sup>2</sup> C. Șerban, *Study Journey in the U.S.S.R.* in "Studii," 20 (1967), 6, p. 1210.

<sup>3</sup> "Analele statistice," IV (1863), p. 101.

<sup>4</sup> *The Calendar of the Galați Townspeople for 1870*, p. 67; Zane, *Romanian Industry*, p. 147—148.

<sup>5</sup> Păltănea, *Galați*, p. 941—942, 983, 996, 1039.

The Goetz concern also owned a sawmill in Cernăuți, with 10 frame saws, and was soon to set up yet another one at Nehoi (Buzău county) after having acquired, on terms that are hardly credible (one leu per tree <sup>6</sup>), the right to exploit the immense forests of the Maican estate that spread from the river Bîscă Rusilii (a tributary of the Buzău) to the former frontier of the country. The company gradually set up mills also at Vatra Dornei, Iacobeni, Gura Humorului, Rușii Moldoviței and Brodina.

As from 1892, the "Furnica" sawmill owned by B. Naftalisohn began to work in the Bădălan district of Galați, but unable to face the competition of the much more powerful Goetz enterprise, it closed down in 1903.

Sawmills emerged in other parts of the country as well. That of Brezoi at the confluence of the rivers Lotru and Olt is worthy of note. In the basin of the river Lotru there were more than 200,000 ha of forests where fir, spruce and beech prevailed <sup>7</sup>. As early as 1819 documents mention the sawmill of deacon Socol at Brezoi <sup>8</sup>. After 1840 the number of sawmills kept increasing and we are informed that logs were being floated down the river Lotru from Voineasa. Carol Novac, a Czech who had settled at Brezoi in 1864, purchased four frame saws and had another six made. In 1873 he started a sawmill where a steam engine drove two "frames," with 10 and 20 saw blades. The number of blades at work depended on the quantity of sawn timber that had to be delivered. Novac was an enterprising man: in 1868 he had a number of capacious boats made, which he floated down the Olt to Rîureni where he loaded salt from Oțele Mari to carry it to Turnu Măgurele, repeating the procedure that had been initiated in the 17th century. When the 1877 War of Independence began <sup>9</sup>, it was at Brezoi that were made the pontoons for the bridge that spanned the Danube at Siliștioara <sup>10</sup>. On Novac's death in 1881, the sawmill was sold to an Italian, G. Stagni of Trieste, and then to Iacob Guttman of Budapest, who expanded it. In 1901 the latter owner turned it into the Lotru Joint-Stock Lumbering Company, with a capital of 1,800,000 lei in gold <sup>11</sup>. That was the time when Transylvanians, Italians and Germans settled at Brezoi. According to the census of 1899 there

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<sup>6</sup> Giurescu, *Contributions*, p. 154.

<sup>7</sup> Petre Bărdașu, *From the History of Lumbering Stations in the Lotru Valley*, in *Studies on the Vâlcea County*, Rimnicu Vâlcea, 1971, p. 19.

<sup>8</sup> Bărdașu—Simeanu, *Brezoi*, p. 25, 29.

<sup>9</sup> Giurescu, *Contributions*, p. 103—104.

<sup>10</sup> Bărdașu—Simeanu, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 23—24, 33—34.

were at Brezoi 805 Romanians, 285 Austro-Hungarians, 115 Italians and 4 Germans. Italians and Germans also settled in the villages of Voineasa and Ciunget<sup>12</sup>. The Lotru Company owned a modern sawmill plant at Brezoi with 12 electricity-driven framesaws, 7 circular saws, having workshops and a four-kilometre cableway. It employed 766 workers; by 1908 the number of workers had increased to 1,344. The company had timber yards at Rimnicu Vilcea, Drăgășani, Craiova, Slatina, Rușii de Vede and Alexandria<sup>13</sup>. After 1900, other companies were founded at Brezoi for timber was in ever greater demand in the home market and more particularly for export. In 1904 the "Oltul" Lumbering Company — a joint Romanian and French Company — was set up. The logs were being rafted down the Olt to the sawmills the Company had opened at Slatina, Stoenesti (Romanati county) and Turnu Măgurele. The number of workers averaged 400, but another 150 were employed for 5 months only to drive the rafts down the Olt. In 1909 a new Company, "Vasilatul," was founded by Mateescu and Ghițescu, who had bought from the freeholders the right to cut the forests in the Vasilatul Valley. The company laid a forest railway line along the Lotru and the Vasilatul, and built a sawmill plant with six frame saws, as well as workshops and a flour mill driven by a 250 horsepower engine placed at the mouth of the river Lotru.

Working conditions for the employees of these companies were hard: 12-hour shifts, very low wages, no concern for improvement, the only aim being maximum profits. "These mills are the modern forced labour camps of our mountains," the newspaper "Poporul Muncitor" of 29 May 1911 wrote.

In Neamț county also, where forests took up vast areas, a number of companies were set up with a view to the production of converted timber: "Moldova", "Bistrița", "Dorna" and "Pîngărați."<sup>14</sup> More than 1500 workers were employed by the sawmills of that county in 1895.

In Suceava county in 1892 the seventeen sawmills were employing nearly 2,500 workers<sup>15</sup>.

In Putna county the "Tișița" Company was formed for the exploitation of the Vrancea forests. In Prahova county, the "Drajna" Company built an important sawmill plant at Măneciu-Ungureni and laid a forest railroad along the Teleajen and Teleajenel Valleys

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<sup>12</sup> Deffontaines, *L'homme et la forêt*, p. 104.

<sup>13</sup> Bărdașu — Simeanu, *op. cit.*, p. 37, 47.

<sup>14</sup> Vlăduțiu, *Bicaz*, p. 249.

<sup>15</sup> Zane, *Romanian Industry*, p. 147.



up to the old frontier Before World War I, the "Argeş" Joint-Stock Company for Lumbering and Woodworking had its registered office at Curtea de Argeş. Its plants had a motive power of 575 H.P. and an annual output of 2,801,523 lei in gold.<sup>16</sup> Italian workers employed in Transylvania, Moldavia, Wallachia and Oltenia introduced the "cant hook," a new tool used to push or turn logs<sup>17</sup>. Italian terms were also adopted concerning log skidding and transport by means of chutes. Thus: *volta* for twisting a trunk around its longitudinal axis; *marina* for dragging the trunk to one side from its thick end down the slope by a rotation movement; *varda*, used by the men at the upper end of the chute to signal to those at the lower end that the logs are being sent down; *garga*, used by the men at the lower end of the chute to signal that they are ready to receive the logs<sup>18</sup>. Furthermore, terms of German and Saxon origin were also used<sup>19</sup>.

During the occupation of the country by the Germans in 1917–1918, the latter cut timber to capacity at Brezoi, Nehoi as well as in the Prahova Valley, workers being mostly recruited from among the Russian and the Italian prisoners of war. The directive issued in August 1917 by Marshal von Mackensen was strictly followed, which specified that the main concern of the Military Administration in Romania should be maximum economic utilization of the administered territory for the benefit of Germany<sup>20</sup>.

After the creation of the independent unitary national state, lumbering companies assumed a fresh development. In 1929 the "Lotru" and "Oltul" Companies, the Romanian Joint-Stock Company for the Forest Industry, the Petroşani Company, the Romanian Bank and other stockholders formed "Carpatina," a Romanian Joint-Stock Company for the Forest Industry with a capital of 100 million lei<sup>21</sup>. Despite the fire which destroyed its sawmill at Brezoi in 1921—insurance companies paying an indemnity of 30 million lei, "Carpatina" was a thriving concern making good profit, which enabled it to pay high dividends to shareholders and, moreover, to make some social and cultural investments for the workers' benefit in 1925<sup>22</sup>. It was the year when Carpatina turned out 186,952

<sup>16</sup> Em. Răcilă, *Exploitation of Mountainous and Hilly Districts during the German Occupation 1916–1918*, ms. 1974.

<sup>17</sup> Arvinte, *Terminology*, p. 29–36; Vlăduţiu, *Romanian Ethnography*, p. 300.

<sup>18</sup> M. Sadoveanu, *Stories from Transylvania*, Bucharest, 1972, p. 169–176.

<sup>19</sup> Arvinte, *op. cit.*, p. 36–50, passim; Vlăduţiu, *Romanian Ethnography*, p. 300.

<sup>20</sup> M. Răcilă, *op. cit.*

<sup>21</sup> Bărdaşu—Simeanu, *op. cit.*, p. 38.

<sup>22</sup> Bărdaşu, *op. cit.*, p. 40–42.

cu.m. of fir timber and 12,906 of beech timber, 104,311 cu.m. being put out at Brezoi alone. Exports to the amount of 35,809 cu.m. went to Bulgaria, Hungary, Palestine, Cyprus, Greece, Syria, Egypt, France, Britain and Germany. By 1926, the company's capital was of 126,075,000 lei, Baron Groedel of Budapest, the main stockholder, controlling it. The crisis of 1930-1933 brought about a drop in output to 65,958 cu.m. but by 1935 production had again risen to 110,417 cu.m. In 1938 Groedel sensed the coming events and sold his stock to "Holding International du Bois" in Monaco. The same year the "Vasilatul" Company, which had not joined the Carpatina, was leased to Messrs. Namax of Palestine.

In 1939, the woodworking industry accounted for about 8.6 per cent of the power installed in Romania's industry, ranking fifth in this respect. It employed about 15 per cent of the total number of workers, thus ranking third, while as regards investments, it ranked seventh.

On 4 December 1940, soon after the Antonescu dictatorship had been installed, a so-called agreement was signed in Berlin, under which Romania was to increase her agricultural and forest output with a view to exports to Germany<sup>23</sup>. Timber, no less than grain and oil, were to go to the Reich in order to strengthen the German war machine. Timber was indeed exported, but not to the extent the Nazis desired.

During the Second World War, the condition of lumbermen deteriorated apace on account of the inflation which left wages far behind.

Up to 1944, softwood was the main variety of timber felled. Only 2.3 per cent of the frame saws were designed for beech<sup>24</sup>, although beech accounted for 34 per cent of Romania's hardwood, which in its turn accounted for 76 per cent of the country's forests. In 1944 there were over 500 sawmills, with some 1,400 frame saws, 1300 of which sawed softwood only. Beech was used as fuel, which was inconceivable waste. In fact, wood was generally wasted: it is estimated that "more than 22 per cent of the volume of felled timber" went to waste. Moreover, the felling rate exceeded the annual growth rate of the forest, which meant an annual decrease of the forest area. Mismanagement (*Raubwirtschaft*) was the result of the boundless lust of gain of the lumbering companies, which did not care for the future of Romania's forests, being concerned only with immediate profit-making to the highest figures possible. This

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<sup>23</sup> Suder, *Forest Economy*, p. 7.

<sup>24</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 8.

pseudointustrial output was a handy means of selling rapidly the very substance of our evergreen forests<sup>25</sup>.

The nationalization of industry on 11 June 1948 marked the beginning of a new age in woodworking. The living conditions of lumbermen have greatly improved. Labour-saving motor-driven portable saws make it much easier to cut tree trunks. The mechanization process has been intensified, cableways as well as motor-lorries and tractors have been introduced for log transportation. All this results in a higher output.

At Brezoi, for example, the output was of 131 per cent in 1965 as against 1960 and 245 per cent higher in 1970<sup>26</sup>. Labour productivity increased accordingly, the leap being accounted for by the introduction of modern technique as well as by better organization. The rise in the timber utilization index has been a constant concern ever since. For beech it went up from 46.1 per cent in 1960 to 63.02 per cent in 1965 and 66.3 per cent in 1970, and for softwood from 88.8 per cent in 1960, to 90.3 per cent in 1965 and to 96.1 per cent in 1970. At the same time, the aim has been to turn timber to best account: in 1960 products worth 195 lei were obtained from one cubic metre of wood while products worth 335 lei were obtained in 1973.

Many forest roads have been built, as in 1944 some 50% of the wooded mountains were inaccessible<sup>27</sup>. Narrow-gauge forest tracks were laid in the Lotru valley, from Brezoi to Voineasa, as also along the tributaries of the Lotru, and a normal-gauge railway was built in the Milcov Valley, north of Odobesti. The decauville track brought an end to rafting on the rivers Lotru and Olt as also on the Bistrița above the Bicaz hydropower station, and on the Siret. Rafting is not recommended for beech, nor is it for softwoods, whose quality it deteriorates. Forest railways have been superseded in many regions by motor-lorries and tractors. By 1966, 1,700 kilometres of forest roads had been built, the total figure for the whole country being of over 17,000 kilometres. Both afforestation and reforestation have made great strides. According to official data, some 1,400 ha were afforested from 1948 to 1966; the plantations of fast-growing Euramerican poplars totalled about 58,000 ha in 1966.

Quite a number of lumbering and wood industrialization combines have been set up at Blaj, Sighet, Turnu Severin, București — Pipera, Suceava, etc.; the existing ones have been expanded.

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<sup>25</sup> See also M. Manoilescu, *Sylviculture and Technology*, Bucharest, 1922, p. 15.

<sup>26</sup> Bărdașu — Simeanu, *op. cit.*, p. 63.

<sup>27</sup> Suder, *op. cit.*, p. 7, 12, 23.



In 1966, there were 19 great wood industry combines, which turned out converted timber and parquetry, fibreboards, chipboards, plywood, veneer, furniture, etc. The timber industry holds an important place in a number of counties. In Bistrița-Năsăud county in 1967, lumbering and woodworking accounted for 43.9 per cent of the county's industry or 2 per cent of this branch of industry in the whole country; adding the woodpulp and paper industry (5.7%), the total is 49.6 per cent, which is nearly half of the county's industry. In Suceava county, figures are 37.1 per cent and 9.7 per cent, respectively together with the pulp and paper industry, the total is 48.1 per cent of the overall industry of the county; in Harghita county, the figure is 38.2 per cent, in Neamț county 19.1 per cent, with the pulp and paper industry accounting for 3.7 per cent, and in Vrancea 17.5 per cent<sup>28</sup>. Three million cu.m. of softwood timber were turned out in 1966<sup>29</sup>. The woodworking industry has definitely assumed a great impetus, but there is one deficiency: the annual felling quota was always exceeded up to 1974. Then, following a categorical order of the party and state leaders, for the first time during the last century the principle of preserving a balance between the growth rate of forests and the felling rate was not only laid down but was also observed. This is an epoch-making decision, and it is on its strict observance from now on that depends the favourable development of Romania's forests.

**Paper and pasteboard mills.** Wood started being used in paper mills only in the 19th century. In his Description of Transylvania, published in 1857, E. A. Bielz points to the existence of 14 "paper mills", two of them equipped with machines for *endloses Papier* at Orlat and Cîrța de Sus, and twelve for *Hand und Schöpfpapier*. It is not specified which of them used wood as raw material, but we surmise that those of Sibiu, Brașov, Cluj and Făgăraș did<sup>30</sup>. In 1857, two modern mills were set up: at Petrești, by Sibiu merchants (taken over by Austrian capitalists in 1871)<sup>31</sup>, and at Zărnești by the Romanians of Brașov. The latter mill started by using rags as raw material to switch over to straw since 1864 and to wood since 1872, when the first pulp grinder was installed, with two more to follow in 1880<sup>32</sup>. "Gazeta Transilvaniei"<sup>33</sup> supplies information

<sup>28</sup> *The Counties of Socialist Romania*, Bucharest, 1969, p. 117, 279, 384, 463, 541.

<sup>29</sup> Suder, *op. cit.*, p. 37.

<sup>30</sup> Bielz, *Stebenbürgen*, p. 290.

<sup>31</sup> *Dates*, p. 202.

<sup>32</sup> Al. Bunescu, *Paper Industry and Graphic Industry in Romania's Encyclopaedia*, III, p. 943—944.

<sup>33</sup> "Gazeta Transilvaniei," XX (1857), p. 354.

about the Zărnești mill, with machinery brought over from Belgium. The Bucharest papers recommended it for "every type of printing and writing paper, both white and blue, at reasonable prices." The mill's storehouse was at Brașov<sup>34</sup>. "Gazeta de Moldavia" advertised the setting by the mill of every type of paper at very low prices<sup>35</sup>, and the opening of a storehouse in Iași<sup>36</sup>. "Telegraful Român" of Sibiu made it known that at Zărnești a paper mill had started working "in a stately building" and that one of its machines had been brought over from England<sup>37</sup>.

On 17 January 1881 a law was promulgated on the promotion of the paper industry and the same year it was decided that the "Letea" paper mill was to be set up in the county of Bacău<sup>38</sup>. That mill engaged in large-scale production in 1885, being equipped with up-to-date machinery. In 1883, the Schiel brothers set up a pulp-board and cardboard mill at Bușteni, with wood as raw material<sup>39</sup>. At Piatra Neamț in 1906, a paper mill was set up close to a sawmill. At Scăieni in Prahova county, a cardboard and pasteboard mill had been working ever since 1883. From 1893 on, the necessary pulp, no longer imported, was made by the Cheia mill on the Teleajen. In order to preclude competition in the home market, a production and sale syndicate was formed in 1903: the "Paper Sales Bureau". It turned into "The Sales Office for Home-made Paper." In 1931, during the world crisis it was a monopoly institution which ruled the home market, setting prices and warding off imports by means of protective customs laws. With paper consumption increasing steadily, notwithstanding the vast wooded areas of Amazonas, Central Africa, Siberia and Canada, a paper crisis is likely to occur — and a warning was sounded as early as 1974. Consequently new raw materials, possibly seaweed, will have to replace wood. Romanian economy has already switched over to wood substitutes; grain straw, for example, is used by the Călărași paper mill (Ialomița county) while reeds are used by the Chișcani chemical combine (Brăila county), both mills being the creation of socialist Romania. At present, we are turning out a wide variety of paper and cardboard.

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<sup>34</sup> "Anunțătorul Român," IV (1857), No. 87, p. 4 and "Românul," I (1857) No. 35, p. 4.

<sup>35</sup> "Gazeta de Moldavia," XXIX (1857), p. 356.

<sup>36</sup> *Ibidem*, XXX (1858), p. 296.

<sup>37</sup> "Telegraful Român", V (1857), p. 194.

<sup>38</sup> C. Botez, D. Berlescu, I. Saizu, *The "Letea" Pulp and Paper Mill*, Bacău, 1971, p. 31, 37–38.

<sup>39</sup> *Dates*, p. 247, 280.

**Match factories.** From the “living fire” obtained by rubbing together two pieces of wood of different hardness, a switch over was made to flint and tinder and, at the beginning of the 19th century, matches were invented. Romanians came to know them through the intermediary of the Turks from whom we also borrowed the term *chibrit*<sup>40</sup>. In the second half of the 19th century a match factory was set up at Filaret in Bucharest, as part of the State Monopoly Administration. In 1896, Adolf Stern of Galați opened a match factory in Șalupa Street as a branch of the Filaret factory<sup>41</sup>. There were three match factories in the country in 1944. The new factory opened at Brăila in 1962 provided availabilities for export<sup>42</sup>.

**Furniture, plywood, veneer, chipboard and fibreboard factories.** There were furniture factories in Romania many decades before World War I. At the close of 1915 there were 10 such factories in Bucharest and one in Iași<sup>43</sup>. There was, moreover, a factory at Azuga, set up in 1898, and 70 smaller enterprises which turned out common furniture<sup>44</sup>.

During the interwar period, the furniture factories of Transylvania, Bucovina and Banat were added to those of the old kingdom. Some of these, such as Lengyel, turned out high class furniture. During the same period plywood and veneer factories emerged, among them the Guguști factory (in the former county of Rîmnîcul-Sărat). But it is during the last two decades that this industry has been mostly developed. Eight new plywood factories have been set up; the most important is part of the Blaj Wood Industry Combine, with an annual output of 36,000 cu.m., which is five times the country's overall plywood output of 1938<sup>45</sup>. In 1960, the overall plywood output amounted to 222,000 cu.m. Similar remarkable strides have been made in veneer production, which in 1966 was four times the 1959 figure, or about 34 million sq.m.<sup>46</sup>. Beech is preferred — nearly 50 per cent —; the other varieties of timber used are oak, walnut, sycamore maple, ash and cherry wood, and a number of exotic woods such as Brazilian rosewood and African pear. The figures to follow will show the progress made in the production of the afore-mentioned two components of furniture, which are also used in decorative art. Plywood output amounted to 6,829 cu.m. in 1938, to 15,087 cu.m.

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<sup>40</sup> L. Șăineanu, *Oriental Influence*, II, Bucharest, 1900, p. 109.

<sup>41</sup> Păltănea, *Galați*, p. 942.

<sup>42</sup> Suder, *op. cit.*, p. 60.

<sup>43</sup> N. Arcadian, *Romania's Industrialization*, Bucharest, 1935, p. 131.

<sup>44</sup> Zane, *op. cit.*, p. 173.

<sup>45</sup> Suder, *op. cit.*, p. 44.

<sup>46</sup> Suder, *op. cit.*, p. 45, 46, 52, 56—58, 60.



in 1950, and to 220,000 cu.m. in 1966, which is 14.8 times more than in 1950 and 32.5 times more than in 1938. Veneer output: 1,888,000 sq.m. in 1938; 1,265,000 sq.m. in 1950, and 33,340,000 sq.m. in 1966 — consequently 17.6 times more than in 1938. Two products which were not made in Romania before World War II, chipboards and fibreboards with thin wood, beech waste and willow or poplar wood as raw material, have also assumed a remarkable development. Chipboard output rose from 17,083 tons in 1959 to 67,093 tons in 1962 and 130,000 tons in 1966 — 7.7 times more than in 1959. Fibreboards, which were not made in 1959, reached an output of 24,376 tons in 1962 and of 144,000 tons in 1966 — a rise of about 6 times. It is estimated that hundreds of thousands of tons of softwood timber were spared in 1966 owing to the two aforementioned products. From 1960 to 1965 eleven factories were set up for the production of furniture, with an annual output of 10,000 — 20,000 suites each (bedroom, dining-room, living room suites), as well as four factories turning out bentwood chairs, each factory with an annual output of 600,000 chairs. There are such factories in Bucharest, Iași, Cluj-Napoca, Arad, Focșani, Rădăuți, Tîrgu Mureș and Dej. Part of Romania's furniture output is being exported to more than 30 countries. Lately, period furniture has also been made.

**Other factories.** Progress has been made also in the output of plants turning out door and window frames and parquetry. From 1960 to 1965, six up-to-date factories were set up for the production of door and window frames, with an annual production capacity ranging between 120,000 and 600,000 sq.m. By 1966, door and window frame production had risen to about 3,000,000 sq.m. annually.

Parquetry began to be made out of oak long before the First World War. During the interwar period it was made also out of ash, while after World War II beech parquetry was made and also lamellar parquetry out of oak waste. Compared with 1959, parquetry output had gone up 2.4 times by 1966: from 1,782,000 sq.m. to 4,140,000 sq.m.

The industry putting out softwood and beech containers has also developed considerably, but there is a tendency to replace wooden containers by plastic ones. We should moreover mention the factories that manufacture casks and barrels out of beech and oak. This is an industry with a long-standing tradition in a country of vine- and plumgrowers<sup>47</sup>. Apart from oak barrels — Pitești holm oak is far famed in this industry — beech barrels are made, and also mulberry casks and barrels, recommended for brandy, whether plum

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<sup>47</sup> Zane, *op. cit.*, p. 68.

brandy or of any other kind. The village of Bozioru in Buzău county had specialized at one time in the making of plum-brandy.

The output of pencils has also registered a nearly six-fold rise from 1948 to 1966.

Special mention should be made of the factories turning out boats and musical instruments. There is a tradition of long standing in this country in the making of water craft<sup>48</sup> — from the dugouts mentioned at the time of Alexander the Great to the “ships and frigates” built in the Galați, Brăila and Giurgiu shipwards. The raw material had been oak. With the progress of technique, wooden ships were superseded by metal ones in the 19th century, but wooden rowing boats are still being made at Tulcea, Oltenița and Giurgiu. Between the two world wars, a factory was set up at Reghin on the Mureș for the manufacture of boats and sport boats — skiffs, kayaks, canoes. This industry had developed during the last two decades. Part of the products are being exported. Tennis rackets have been made here ever since 1937. The output has exceeded the one hundred thousand piece mark. There is, moreover, a musical instruments factory at Reghin which turned out 10,000 units in 1966. It is a very special industry which requires high quality wood, in the first place spruce and sycamore maple. The timber is selected by experts, felled in winter and dried for long before being used. As we are among the few European countries which still possess resonance wood, it is imperative that it should be used sparingly.

Finally, we come to the wood distillate industry. Under the influence of heat applied in an enclosed space, wood yields various products. Formerly, tar was thus obtained, which served to caulk vessels and as spindle oil, and sometimes as a drug. Today, by dry distillation of wood, acetic acid is obtained, which is used for various purposes, among other things to prepare vinegar. In 1936 there were only 4 wood distilleries with a motive power of 1378 HP and a capital of 66 million lei<sup>49</sup>.

Wood serves as raw material in quite a number of industries. Ever more rational and intensive utilization of this source of wealth, which can be turned to account without wasting a single particle, has been characteristic of the last decades. We are under the obligation of preserving and of carefully using the country's forest patrimony, a priceless capital for our followers.

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<sup>48</sup> Giurescu, *Contributions*, p. 96—124.

<sup>49</sup> D. A. Shurlan, *The Timber Industry*, in *Romania's Encyclopaedia*, III, p. 936.

## HOME TRADE IN WOOD AND OTHER FOREST PRODUCTS

*Home trade in forest products includes a great variety of goods.*

**Home trade in wood and wooden products.** Forests have always brought in a good income for they yield many products sought after both in the home market and for export. Little wonder, therefore, that the income thus derived should have been recorded in the earliest chancellery deeds. On 10 August 1279, King Ladislaus of Hungary, addressing the Cumans who had settled "between the Danube and the Tisa, or close to the river Criș, or between the rivers Mureș and Criș, or on both banks of that river, or between the Timiș and the Mureș", according to the directions of King Béla IV, bestowed on them "the waste land of the nobility and of the serfs of the citadel, desolate as they were left at the time of the Tartars' invasion, and lacking any uses and incomes, that is fish ponds and forests which may bring in profit [*silvis lucrativis*]." There are also "waste lands... which are of fruitful use, that is they are rich in fish ponds and in thick forests."<sup>1</sup>

The villages got in their supplies of building timber and fuelwood straight from the forests which were vast and numerous. Townspeople had to buy wood, except if the town bordered on a forest. Sixteenth century Turkish regulations for the excise for local trade in the town of Babadag laid down among other things: "Should boards come in by waggon, a board is to be levied on each waggon, and should *copaci* come in for house building an asper is to be levied per waggon."<sup>2</sup> *Copaci* meant big, heavy pieces of timber, and especially the oak house foundation planks.

Even the princely court, which was first supplied with building timber and fuelwood by the townspeople and villagers of the district, had to buy the necessary wood. The register of Constantin

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<sup>1</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 13th century, vol. II, p. 219.

<sup>2</sup> *Dersca, Dobrudja*, p. 42.



Brâncoveanu's treasury records several such purchases<sup>3</sup>. Thus, under 15 January 1694, "100 thalers have been given to Cornescu, the court's steward, to spend on wood, apart from what had been given him before." On 28 March of the same year: "100 thal. have been given to the court's steward for wood". On 20 July, in the height of summer, we read: "105 thal. have been given to the court's steward to buy fire wood for the winter." Furthermore in September-October: "95 thal. have been given to the steward to spend on fire wood for the winter." The wood served to heat the prince's palace, including the bathroom, which was decorated with marble, as well as the rooms of the mercenaries and of the court servants. The same applies to the wooden pavement slabs used for the more important roads in the capital cities. They were first supplied by the townspeople and villages of the districts as part of their dues, but later they were bought for ready money. An entry of 1792 in the register of the Moldavian treasury reads: "5,950 lei for 3,400 road planks that have been paid for by the prefects in the counties named below."<sup>4</sup> The contract concluded on 5 January 1820 by 14 villagers of Măicănești, with Freiwald, an engineer by profession, stipulated the making of "700 planks for the main road of the city of Bucharest, which should be of good oak, 32 palms long and a palm wide and thick," and their rafting down the Argeș to the village of Prisiceni. The price was to be 4 thalers per plank, consequently 2,800 thalers or lei, to be paid half on the conclusion of the agreement, and half at Prisiceni on delivery<sup>5</sup>.

The home trade bound up with forests is concerned with the following categories of products: 1. converted timber; 2. elements for fencing and roofing, for work in vineyards and gardens; 3. household objects and tools; 4. means of conveyance; 5. fuelwood and charcoal; 6. fruit and other forest products.

Converted timber was needed for the foundations and the frames of houses, for partition walls, doors, etc.; it consequently included beams, deals, rafters, door jambs, laths and others, as shown in the price lists of the Phanariot period. In the past some of our towns were surrounded with enclosures made up of tree trunks and thick poles. Giving an account of the campaign of Matthew Corvinus in Moldavia in 1467, chronicler Bonfinius points out that Baia was surrounded by a "wooden wall."<sup>6</sup> (*Ligneam urbem, vimi-*

<sup>3</sup> "Revista Istorică a Arhivelor României," Bucharest, 1873, p. 8, 14, 25, 51, 69.

<sup>4</sup> Iorga, *Documents and Researches*, p. 63.

<sup>5</sup> Cojocaru, *Documents*, I, p. 239.

<sup>6</sup> Antonius Bonfinius, *Historia Pannonica*, Köln, 1690, p. 397.

*neo muro circum septam*). An important eye witness, who took part in the Turkish expedition of 1476, supplies the information that Suceava was *con fossi et palanche circondata*<sup>7</sup>. For Bucharest, we have two sources of information. The Saxon Hieronimus Ostermayer, records in his chronicle that Prince Mircea Ciobanul (1545–1554) had the town enclosed with big pieces of oak wood (*Bukarest mit grossen eychenen Hölzer hat umschranken lassen*)<sup>8</sup>. The Parisian Pierre Lescalopier, passing through Bucharest in June 1574, noted that “the walls of the town vere made of big tree trunks stuck into the ground close to one another and connected by cross beams attached to the trunks by long and thick wooden wedges. The town is paved with tree trunks.”<sup>9</sup>

Wooden props were used in vine growing to tie vine tendrils, and in gardening for certain vegetables such as climbing beans, tomatoes and aubergines. The price list of 1793 lays down: “good cleft vine props of 12 palms, 5 thalers per thousand pieces brought to destination; straight props, 3 thalers per thousand pieces brought to destination.”<sup>10</sup>

Household things and tools in great numbers were made of wood. The list of 1793, under the generic title of “Coopers’ Wares,” includes: oak buckets (of different sizes), pails, big troughs, smaller troughs, wooden spoons, waggons and carts, cart wheels, hoops for wine barrels, etc. In the Wallachian customs tariff dated 1 January 1792 we find that for the sale of “walnut boards” the charge per “cintar” (about 50 kg) was of 6 bani<sup>11</sup>.

Wooden household goods and tools were sold at fairs, in the market and, in certain villages, by master craftsmen themselves. We should add pitchforks and rakes, platters and bowls, door bolts, vats and firkins, churns, casks, barrels, butts, kegs, sieves, and wild bee-hives. The latter were usually made in a hollowed out lime tree trunk with walls thick enough to shut out the light. Above the cylinder thus obtained a smooth slab was placed so that the opening was completely closed, and at the lower part a hole was cut to let the bees in and out. Such a cylinder, locally called *știubei*, used to be placed above water springs: when bending over it to drink, one can see water bubbling underneath. There is a cylinder so placed

<sup>7</sup> Donaldo de Lezze, *Historia turchesca (1300–1514)*, ed. I. Ursu, Bucharest, 1909, p. 91.

<sup>8</sup> J. Kemeny edition, *Deutsche Fundgruben der Geschichte Siebenbürgens*, vol. I. Klausenburg, 1839, p. 31.

<sup>9</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, I, p. 426.

<sup>10</sup> Urechia, *History of the Romanians*, V, p. 352.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibidem*, V, p. 245, 352 and 354.

beneath a lime tree, on the boundary of Chiojdu commune (Buzău county); in Vrancea there is one on the Nistorești—Vrincioaia road and one on the boundary of Bîrsești commune<sup>12</sup>.

Musical instruments made of wood were also sold in the market. In the first place flutes, big and small, long shepherd pipes, alpenhorns, kobsas, lutes and cymbaloes. Alpenhorns were made of sycamore maple, ash, fir or hazel wood. The trunk of a young tree was cleft lengthwise and hollowed out, the two halves were stuck together and enwrapped with birch, cherry-tree or lime-tree bark; wooden rings were added in places for greater solidity. There were five types of alpenhorns and a whole series of flutes<sup>13</sup>. Hope chests were made in Wallachia and Moldavia all right, but the best were brought over from Brașov. The customs tariff issued in Oltenia on 28 June 1732 during the Austrian occupation of the province includes "coloured Transylvanian chests-of-drawers," which are the equivalents of hope chests, in three sizes: big, medium and small<sup>14</sup>. The Wallachian customs tariff of 1 January 1792 includes: tilts, axles, yokes, wheels, offered in the market and also pails and bushels, for all of which one *ban* out of every ten was to be levied. Other items included in the tariff are: "sweep net boats, pontoon boats and very small boats" for which 120 bani, 60 bani and 40 bani, respectively was charged, and finally "wooden mills on the Danube."<sup>15</sup>

An article in request was the *plosca*, a wooden flask, big or small, which was used to carry wine or brandy during travels or on various festive occasions. As early as 1596, referring to Romanian trade, the Italian Botero mentioned, among other things, "the flasks made of lime-tree root and prized for the beauty of the veins."<sup>16</sup>

Carriages and coaches were also made in the Romanian countries. In the register of Brâncoveanu's treasury the following entry is dated 1 May 1697: "414 1/2 thalers paid for the Vizir's carriage; 1076 thalers 55 bani paid for 5 carriages made for the Vizir's steward, for the Turkish Minister of Finance, for the Turkish Chancellor and for the Silistra Pasha, and a lower-rate one for another Turkish official."<sup>17</sup> It is plain that the Vizir's carriage cost double the amount paid for one of the common type. Documents mention the existence

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<sup>12</sup> Hirnea, Vrancea, p. 25.

<sup>13</sup> Tiberiu Alexandru, *The Musical Instruments of the Romanian People*, Bucharest, 1956, passim.

<sup>14</sup> Constantin Giurescu, *Oltenia*, p. 521.

<sup>15</sup> Urechia, *op. cit.*, IV. p. 235–237.

<sup>16</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, IV, p. 575.

<sup>17</sup> "Revista Istorică a Arhivelor României," p. 307.



of coach makers in Bucharest and Iași<sup>18</sup>. Nevertheless, it was Transylvania which had specialized in quality carriages, including sprung carriages, and even in quality waggons. Basarab the Young, prince of Wallachia (1477–1481) asked the Braşov town councillors to buy two sprung carriages for him, specifying “let them be big and handso e.”

On 20 November 1482 Vlad the Monk made the same request: “Arrange for the purchase of a good sprung carriage and let me know the price.” And around 1504 (or perhaps 1507), Radu the Great wrote to the Braşov people that he had dispatched his man, Alexi, to find two waggons, which should be “big and iron-braced, with hoods and everything else needed, and new and excellent, as you, dear sirs, know it is necessary they should be on a journey.”<sup>19</sup>

Moldavian princes also sent their orders to Bistriţa. On 6 August 1557 Alexandru Lăpuşneanu received two carriages which he had ordered on 27 May. He thought them more expensive than those of Braşov. Nevertheless, he also ordered a sprung carriage<sup>20</sup>. On 17 July 1566 he wrote to the same people at Bistriţa, requesting them to send him during the Advent “the three carriages made of dry wood.” They were to be red, without any flowers, for eight horses each<sup>21</sup>.

Fuelwood was also brought to the market in large quantities, as specified in the 1793 price list<sup>22</sup>. An official notice of the year 1867 estimates that 2,589, 926 stinjeni\* of fuelwood worth 274,891,860 piasters or lei, were being burnt annually<sup>23</sup>. Half way through the 19th century, charcoal was made of oak, hornbeam, birch or elm, the most prized being the first two. Later, beech wood started being used as beech forests were numerous.

During the 1930–1935 interval a considerable part of the total quantity of timber felled annually, which amounted to about 15 million cubic metres, was used as fuelwood. As it has been stated, this was “unwarranted waste.”<sup>24</sup> Among forest products sold in the market we should mention also forest fruit, tinder, resin, oak nuts, and potash. Wild strawberries, raspberries, blackberries, bilberries, mountain currants and hazel nuts have always been in favour.

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<sup>18</sup> See Giurescu, *History of Bucharest*, p. 280.

<sup>19</sup> Bogdan, *Documents — Braşov*, p. 170, 185, 219–220.

<sup>20</sup> Iorga, *Bistriţa Documents*, p. LII–LIII.

<sup>21</sup> Hurmuzaki–Iorga, *Documents*, XV, 1, p. 617.

<sup>22</sup> Urechia, *op. cit.*, V, p. 353–354.

\* One stinjen = 8 cu.m.

<sup>23</sup> Notice, p. 78.

<sup>24</sup> Pop, *Forests*, p. 21,

They were sold in the market in summer and in autumn. Hops were also sold for the preparation of beer. Moreover, the various kinds of mushrooms, including edible boletus, honey agaric, morel and other varieties, both fresh and dried, were greatly appreciated. Over and above the native hazel nuts there were Turkish filbert nuts, which had been acclimatized in Banat time out of mind. In Oltenia and in the Baia Mare district in Transylvania, sweet chestnuts were also brought to market.

The customs tariff of 1 January 1792 mentions two kinds of tinder: "tree tinder," a native product for which a charge of 3 bani per *oca* (about three pounds), was paid and "fungus tinder" — sea fungus most probably, and consequently imported — for which 8 bani per *oca* was paid. Oak nuts, used in the tanning of hides, were also taxed<sup>25</sup>.

Caustic potash was obtained in the Romanian countries by burning wood under certain conditions and by treating the resulting ashes. The Romanian term for ash, *cenușă*, is of Latin origin, from *cinusia*, which in its turn is derived from *cinus*, *cineris*. In 1437, Gheorghe Lascăr, Vlad Dracul's steward, wrote to the Brașov councillors that one of his servants "was living in the house of Haneș, the ash-collector of Brașov" subsequently specifying: "in the house of Haneș, now ash-collector of Os, the rector."<sup>26</sup> The duties of an ash-collector are not specified in the letter, but we think that he might have collected the ashes resulted from the burning of wood in the fire places of the town. His task might equally have been to make special ashes by burning under certain conditions some varieties of timber, as will be done in Moldavia two hundred years later. It is interesting to note that the clerk that drew up the deed in Slavonic, the chancellery language of those days, used the Romanian term (*cenușar*) of Latin origin. Most probably, the Slavs had no corresponding term.

The production of potash is described by an English traveller, Robert Bargrave, who on his way through Moldavia in 1652 visited one of the potash-producing centres, in the vicinity of the village of Dracșani in Hîrlău county. Leaving that village in the company of a Scotsman, Black, on 21 October, Bargrave rode to the Scotsman's hut in the midst of the forests that had been leased by his employer, Mr. Dunbarr of Danzig for the production of potash. He saw the work done there and learnt how to do it. To begin with, a variety of timber named *barrest* (similar to English beech) is burnt. The ashes

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<sup>25</sup> Urechia, *op. cit.*, IV. p. 242, 244.

<sup>26</sup> Bogdan, *Documents — Brașov*, p. 255.

are soaked in water for 24 hours, after which the water is piped to the vats that surrounded the kiln; the latter is some two English fathom deep and seven fathom long. In which kiln oaks and other varieties of timber are burnt, being artfully heaped in crossed layers. As soon as the flame rises, it is choked in barrest ashes letting the wood burn underneath until the two layers above fall to the bottom, when they are allowed to burn at will without choking them, so that the ashes underneath should melt. They thus obtain a kind of hard mineral of a mixed sulphurous colour; the harder it is, the better, it is best when, being exposed to cold air for an hour only, it will melt or when, being dissolved in water, with an egg or a piece of the best cowberry wood put in the water, it will float. What they call "rich ashe" is made only of barest ash which, being burnt in large kilns, falls through an iron grate, like molten lead, and is taken out together with certain ingots, but this kind is much inferior to the other<sup>27</sup>. It follows from Bargrave's description that by burning oak and other varieties of timber under special conditions, two products were obtained: caustic potash, which the Moldavians called *potas* and the so-called rich ash, much inferior to the former.

Another production centre was at Zamostea in Dorohoi county, run by a Scotsman jointly with two Greeks. Gheorghe Ștefan, Moldavia's prince, had an interest in the affair, having invested the considerable sum of 20,000 thalers<sup>28</sup>. Potash production was most profitable. In 1675, De la Croix, a French traveller, estimated the income derived by the prince at some 50,000 thalers, while saltpetre brought in only 4,000 thalers<sup>29</sup>. During the reign of Gheorghe Duca (1678–1683), High Treasurer Ursachi, with Alexandru Balaban, the rich Lwow merchant as partner, ran three potash-producing centres in Vaslui county, making considerable profits<sup>30</sup>. Moldavia continued to turn out potash in the 18th century. In 1798, the number of kilns went up suddenly from one to thirty. The reason was the rise in profitableness, for the product continued to be exported to Danzig and also to Constantinople, Smyrna and Vienna. The ruling prince had to use his influence to restrict production as there was a danger of deforesting a considerable wooded area<sup>31</sup>.

<sup>27</sup> Franz Babinger, *Robert Bargrave, Un voyageur anglais dans les Pays Roumains du temps de Basile Lupu (1652)*, in *A.A.R.M.S.I.*, s. 3, t. XVII (1935, 1936), p. 141–189.

<sup>28</sup> *The History of Romania*, III, p. 51. See also: E.D. Tappe, *Patrick Simson, a Scottish Merchant in the Moldavian Potash Trade*, in "The Slavonic and East-European Review," XXX (1952), No. 75, p. 494–513.

<sup>29</sup> V. Mihoideu, *A Description of Moldavia Before Cantemir*, in "Revista Istorică," XXIII (1937), 3–4, p. 140–141.

<sup>30</sup> *History of Romania*, II, p. 51.

<sup>31</sup> Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, III, 2, p. 567.



Little information is available on potash production in Wallachia. A village "Cenușari" in the basin of the river Teleajen, not far from the village of Albinari, was mentioned in a document from 30 December 1580 — June 1582<sup>32</sup>. Another village so named in Vlașca, dependent on Grădiștea de Jos commune, is cited in D. Frunzescu's *Topographic Dictionary*. The author describes it as a very old name<sup>33</sup>. The same dictionary mentions "Cenușa," an isolated house in Brăila county<sup>34</sup>.

Subsequent to the mentioned 1437 information, few data are available on potash production in Transylvania. Nevertheless, we believe it to have continued uninterruptedly in that province as well as in Wallachia. Proof of it are the 62 potash installations existing in Transylvania half through the 19th century, the most important ones being located in the east of the country, viz. in Odorhei county and about the town of Brașov. Varghiș turned out some 40,000 kg annually, Sfintu Gheorghe 20,000 kg, Zagon 10,000, Erdeu Singeorgiu 7,500, etc.<sup>35</sup> In his "Description of Transylvania", E. A. Bielz states that potash was being made of beech, oak and elm<sup>36</sup>. During the first half of the 19th century, the Banffy family had raised a potash manufactory in the extensive forests they owned in Sălaj<sup>37</sup>.

In Moldavia, there was in 1849 a potash enterprise in the village of Probota in Suceava county, and in 1851 a potash-making machine was mentioned in the village of Spria de Jos in Tecuci county<sup>38</sup>. In *Notice sur la Roumanie* published in Paris in 1867, it is stated that "potash is manufactured now only in a few places" in the country, but that this industry has a promising future and that it could be introduced especially in the mountains, from where the wood needed for work and for fuel can only be got with very great difficulty<sup>39</sup>. Fortunately for our forests, this precision did not come true.

Only a small part of the potash made on the Carpatho-Danubian territory was traded in the country, for most of it was exported.

**Woodworkers and villages specializing in woodwork.** An oily liquid, the tar, used to caulk vessels and to oil axles, was obtained by wood distillation in a kiln. The timber used was black pine. The

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<sup>32</sup> D.I.R., B, 16th century, vol. IV, p. 498—499.

<sup>33</sup> D. Frunzescu, *Topographical Dictionary*, 1872, p. 104 and 222.

<sup>34</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 104.

<sup>35</sup> Bielz, *Siebenbürgen*, p. 286—287.

<sup>36</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 88.

<sup>37</sup> *History of Romania*, III, p. 1007.

<sup>38</sup> Boicu, *Industry*, p. 198.

<sup>39</sup> *Notice*, p. 79

procedure dates down to the Daco-Roman age, since Pliny, the naturalist, describes it and the Romanian term, *catran*, is of Latin origin. In his *Descriptio Moldaviae*, Dimitrie Cantemir refers to the black oil of Moinești and specifies: "were it possible for it to be separated from water, it might be used for household needs far better than that obtained from trees"<sup>40</sup> (i.e. tar).

In Transylvania, tar was made by birch bark distillation and the liquid thus obtained, birch oil, was still in use in the early 20th century<sup>41</sup>.

There were villages whose inhabitants specialized in the making of certain wooden objects. Up to the present, their recollection is alive in place-names in different areas of present-day Romania. Mention is to be made of "Scăfari" and "Șindrilari", where scoops and shingles were made; "Blidari" — "Blidărești" (platter makers); "Butnărești" (butt makers); "Cărbunari" (charcoal makers); "Dogari" (coopers); "Legănari" (carriage spring makers); "Lingurari" (spoon makers); "Rotari" (wheelwrights).

There were many more villages whose names did not indicate the trade plied by most of their inhabitants. Here are a few examples: on 24 September 1531 payment is made of 5 florins to the butt makers in the village of Hărau (Hunedoara county) "for hooping and repairing 30 butts"<sup>42</sup>. According to the "Urbarium" of 1632, the villages of Ohaba and Șinca in the Făgăraș Land had specialized in the making of shingles, while the villagers of "Corbi" had for long been "burning charcoal for the citadel."<sup>43</sup> On 7 May 1665, the wet coopers of Mărățai, not far from Piatra Neamț, sold a plot of ground to Bisericiani Monastery for "43 lei ready money."

A Moldavian statistical table puts the number of craftsmen and journey-men working wood in ten of the 13 main towns of the country at 977. Botoșani counted 136; Bacău followed with 107, not including Jewish craftsmen; then came Galați with 93, again not counting Jewish and foreign craftsmen, and Piatra Neamț with 77 woodworking craftsmen<sup>44</sup>.

An impressive number of woodworking craftsmen were recorded in Transylvania in 1857; 1286 joiners, 971 carpenters, 776 wheel-

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<sup>40</sup> 1973 edition, p. 104—015.

<sup>41</sup> Bliez, *op. cit.*, p. 88; Tudor Pamfil, *The Cottage Industry with the Romanians*, Bucharest, 1910, p. 249—250; I. Vintilescu, *Forgotten Age-old Industry: the Tar Industry*, Bucharest, 1945, 13 p.; Emil Pop, *Documents on Tar Manufacture in the Romanian Carpathians*, Bucharest, 1946.

<sup>42</sup> Pataki, *Hunedoara*, p. LXXX.

<sup>43</sup> *Urbaria*, I, p. 47.

<sup>44</sup> Boicu, *op. cit.*, p. 184.

wrights, 536 coopers, 117 turners, 2213 makers of buckets, pails, firkins, churns. No less than 1938 woodworkers were recorded in Alba county, most of them "Moți" living in the Apuseni Mountains. Furthermore, 520 people worked at the sawmills, 175 made basket-work, 62 potash and 55 sieves, to say nothing of those employed by the two woodworking manufactories, and of the 830 woodware and sawn timber dealers<sup>45</sup>.

In 1832 there were in Bucharest no less than 353 woodworkers of every speciality: 250 carpenters, 68 hoopers, 17 joiners, 17 sawn timber dealers and 1 shingle maker<sup>46</sup>.

In the Romanian countries were known "salt roads", used by the waggons of salt going from the salt mines to the main fisheries along the Danube such as Slon, on the shore of the Greaca lake. Two such salt roads skirted Bucharest<sup>47</sup>. There was, moreover, a "fish road" used by the carts that carried fresh and salt fish from the Danube to Bucharest<sup>48</sup>, and also "a butter road" in Teleorman county and a "maize flour road" in Dolj county. And there were likewise, "timber roads." One of them is mentioned to have existed in the lowland of Romanați county; a document of 7 November 1570 whereby the title of Bistrița Monastery to an estate in Vădastra village is confirmed, states that the boundary runs "up to the lime-tree... and as far as the timber road."<sup>49</sup> Another such road was in the south-east part of Ilfov county. Confirming the title of Cătă-lui Monastery to its estate around the monastery and to the village of Descoperești, Prince Mihnea specified in a deed dated 12 December 1579 the boundary landmarks as follows: "Over the backwaters to reedy Solduș and across the field to Jilezea's well and along the timber road to the Bucharest road."<sup>50</sup>

We should also mention the "Forest Road" in Tulcea county which connected Congaz and Agighiol communes at the beginning of our century<sup>51</sup>. When coming down the Bistrița, raftsmen used to call the right bank "the forest" because woods were close to one another all the way<sup>52</sup>. Documents dated 23 April 1629 and 18 June 1629

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<sup>45</sup> Bielz, *op. cit.*, p. 286–287.

<sup>46</sup> E. Virtosu, I. Virtosu and H. Opreșcu, *The Beginnings of Town Planning*, 1830–1832. Bucharest, 1936, p. 158–223.

<sup>47</sup> Const. C. Giurescu, *Bucharest Toponymy. I 'Drumul Sării' not 'Drumul Serii.'* In "Studii și cercetări lingvistice," XIII (1962), No. 1.

<sup>48</sup> Giurescu, *Cornățelul*, p. 98, 110.

<sup>49</sup> D.R.H., B, XVI, 3, p. 384.

<sup>50</sup> *Ibidem*, 4, p. 436.

<sup>51</sup> G.G.D.R., IV, p. 645.

<sup>52</sup> Țăranu, *Rafting*, p. 51.



give as a landmark of the boundary of Băldălui village "the Oak road,"<sup>53</sup> while a document dated 3 November 1703 establishing the boundaries of part of Mihăești village (Olt county), states that the boundary runs along the "Walnut Grove Road down to the Sheep Road... and to the Walnut Grove Road."

**The price of timber.** The price of Romanian timber has always depended on a number of elements: in the first place the law of supply and demand, then also the fact that from the 15th century to half way through the 19th century, our main customer was the Ottoman Empire, which was also the suzerain country and consequently exercised political influence. Finally, the lack of proper means of communication to and from many of the forests in the mountainous districts, should also be taken into account.

No information is available on the price of wood in ancient times or the early Middle Ages. An agreement dated 31 May 1291 has come down to us; it is concluded between the Chaplain of Saint Michael's Church of Cluj and four carpenters of Cricău, Alba Iulia, Girbova and Cilnic, who were to repair the wooden roof of Saint Michael's church. The price agreed upon is 90 marks and 24 ells of Dorn cloth, to be paid as follows: "12 marks when the carpenters first go to the wood to cut timber for beams and joists. When the material has been taken to the church and they had again returned to the wood to cut roof timbers, another 12 marks." All the other operations and payments are further specified in detail. All the timber was to be transported from the wood to the church by the Bishop, who was also to provide the nails, clasps, and the other prerequisites. But the timber was to be "hewn, chipped and worked by the carpenters until the whole work has been completed."<sup>54</sup> Nothing is said about the price of the wood, probably because the forest belonged to the Church. At the time, the price of timber could not have been very high for the forests were vast and people were sparse. The following characteristic data show the low value of timber until very late in the 19th century: On 18 August 1804 Mother Superior Salomia Stamatin, of Scinteia Hermitage in Putna county, bought for 50 lei of Sava Izmă, several acres of land, including a glade of one acre for 10 lei and an acre of woodland for 6 lei<sup>55</sup>. It is plain that a forest decreased the value of land instead of enhancing it. In 1884, the freeholders of the village of Săliște (Mălaia commune) sold several thousand hectares of woodland to Margareta Novac, the

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<sup>53</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, vol. XXII, p. 488 and 591.

<sup>54</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 13th century, vol. II, p. 372—374.

<sup>55</sup> Bucharest State Archives, Scinteia Hermitage, Parcel I, document 2.

wife of a forest entrepreneur in the Lotru Valley. The price was the painting of the village church<sup>56</sup>. The transaction conclusively proves the low value of a forest of difficult access in the midele reaches of the river Lotru. About the same time Colonel Maican sold to the Goetz Forest Company the forest on his vast estate at Bisca Rusilii in the neighbourhood of the Penteleu Mountain at the price of *one leu per tree*<sup>57</sup>.

Starting from the 16th century, more precise data are available, though it is not possible to establish unit prices. A Transylvanian account of 1517 mentions the following purchases connected to vine growing: "Props to support the offshoots, two florins; twigs to bind the tendrils 60 dinars; limerope for new offshoots, 80 dinars."<sup>58</sup> Two entries concerning the Hunedoara Palace are dated 1518: "Shingles to roof the palace, 1 florin; the carpenter's pay for covering the roofs, 2 florins."<sup>59</sup> It is plain that at the time, as well as later, the cost of the work was above the cost of the material, in this case being double.

Contemporaneous documents show that in the Bran citadel area the price of one board was 1 asper in 1560, 4 dinars in 1580 and 10 dinars in 1600. The price of 400 shingles was 12 aspers in 1504 while 1000 shingles costed 1 florin in 1595<sup>60</sup>.

In the first half of the 16th century information is available concerning the wood exported or supplied to the Ottoman Empire. We learn from a Turkish customs register under 15 April 1520 what duty was paid at Giurgiu in the Rayah: "Fir boards brought over and sold by the waggonful are charged 4 akce<sup>61</sup> per waggonful. And Efliak<sup>62</sup> charges 3 akce for every hundred boards."<sup>63</sup> Other entries in that register show that logs as well as fuelwood were also brought over, for the erection of public buildings and for the needs of the local population. No precise prices are given this time either. Interesting information is available regarding the exports of Dobrudjan wood to Istanbul and trade in wood in the town of Babadag. As regards Constanța and Mangalia, Turkish customs regulations of

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<sup>56</sup> Corneliu Tamaș, Petre Bârdașu, Sergiu Purece, *Guidebook for the Vâlcea County State Archives*, Bucharest, 1972, p. 55.

<sup>57</sup> Giurescu, *Contributions*, p. 153.

<sup>58</sup> Patachi, *op. cit.*, p. LXXVIII.

<sup>59</sup> *Ibidem*, p. CX.

<sup>60</sup> Prodan, *Serfdom*, p. 671.

<sup>61</sup> "Akce" was a bronze divisionary coin.

<sup>62</sup> *Efliak* or *Iflak*, was the Turkish name for Wallachia.

<sup>63</sup> Bistra Țvetkova, *System of Economic Exchanges Between the Territories North and South of the Danube in the 16th Century*, in *Romanian-Bulgarian Relations Along the Centuries*, Bucharest, 1971, p. 126, 137.

the 16th century lay down that one asper should be levied per waggonful of timber<sup>64</sup>. As the duty generally amounted to 3 per cent, the value of a waggonful of timber must have been 33—34 aspers. The directions for the trade in wood in the town of Babadag specified: "Should boards come by waggon, a board should be taken from every waggon, and should trees come for house building, one asper should be charged per waggonful." Consequently a waggonful of heavy timber was valued at 33—34 aspers again; we can moreover conclude that a board was priced one asper, i.e. the equivalent of the local duty. This is the first precise information available regarding the value of timber.

In the firman of 7 April 1560 to Moldavia's Prince Alexandru Lăpușneanu, Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent demands that provisions and timber should be sent to Otchakov, the Turkish citadel at the mouth of the Dnieper, by waggons accompanied by their owners of their bailiffs, which will facilitate the completion of the repairs to the citadel, on the one hand, and bring in profit to the producers, on the other hand<sup>65</sup>. The last provision is worthwhile underlining as it shows that payment was to be made according to market prices, or very near them, for otherwise Moldavian producers and timber merchants had no reason for embarking on a long and tiring journey to the mouth of the Dnieper.

As from the 17th century, precise data are available on the cost of wooden products. In Constantin Brâncoveanu's treasury register an entry dated 28 March 1694 reads: "5250 thalers given to the Turkish commander of Giurgiu to pay for 3000 big boards and 4000 boat ribs and 2000 floor boards, and 200 thin boards that are to be cut for the purpose of making 50 barges and 5 launches, according to the firmans that have been received, and also 2,000 oars." Most of that sum went to pay for the cutting, fashioning and transport of the material to the Danube; wood proper was still worth very little. Proof of it is another entry in the treasury register dated 24 December 1696: "330 thalers and a half and 33 bani has been sent to Captain Sterie that he might make 1900 oars, 20 bani per oar."<sup>66</sup> As the work was usually paid twice as much as the material, it follows that the wood used for an oar, together with the cost of transport amounted to 6 bani and a third, while wood alone amounted to 2—3 bani at most.

The increase of the population, the rise in the number of boroughs, and exports, the better regulation of trade after the Kuchuk-

<sup>64</sup> Dersca, *Dobrudja*, p. 42—43.

<sup>65</sup> Guboglu, *Catalogue*, II, p. 27—28, No. 74.

<sup>66</sup> "Revista Istorică a Arhivelor României," Bucharest, 1873, p. 13, 270.



Kainarji Treaty, the taking of measures to protect forests, resulted in the rise of the value of wood, though to a very small extent. Price lists and customs tariffs in the second half of the 18th century supply valuable indications. To begin with, we will quote from a document sent by the Porte to the Russian Ambassador on 9 January 1784: "whenever sawn timber is supplied, a reasonable price shall be paid to the rayahs,"<sup>67</sup> i.e. to the Wallachian and Moldavian producers. Furthermore, an order dated 20–29 April 1786 was sent by Sultan Abdul Hamid I to the Commander of the Bender citadel pointing out among other things that if some of the Bugeac people cross into Moldavia for timber, twigs, brushwood and fuelwood, they should pay aspers<sup>68</sup>.

The price list of 12 September 1791 for Bucharest also provides valuable information regarding the price of timber and of various wooden products in the home trade<sup>69</sup>.

A number of firmans prove that timber supplies to the Porte were deducted from the yearly tribute paid for Wallachia and Moldavia. Such are for example, the firmans of 18 June, 27 August, 17 September and 18 October 1787.

It is interesting to note that Turkish documents use Romanian terms in writing about timber. Thus, in the firmans of 31 March—9 April 1787<sup>70</sup>, dispatched by Sultan Abdul Hamid I to the officials in charge of the repairs to the Hotin and Ismail citadels we find Romanian technical terms: *talpă* and *șarampoi*. The Ottoman Porte chancellery used them, probably because there were no equivalents in Ottoman terminology, or perhaps because these terms were well known in the Turkish citadels on the Moldavian border. In 1792, Prince Mihai Suțu of Wallachia, complained to the Porte that the Turkish official charged with the building of storehouses for grain and other produce had demanded that timber should be sold to him at a lower price than that paid by the Porte and refused the goods when sent to him. It is in connection with such practices of the Turkish officials that Sultan Selim III sent an order to Prince Constantin Ipsilanti, on 18 September—27 October 1802 confirming Wallachia's privileges and specifying: "Trade in provisions, timber and vegetables should be so regulated as not to prejudice the rayah." "The producing and transport of timber shall also be regulated." On 26 May 1813, Cadi Ahmed of Nicopolis "requests Prince

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<sup>67</sup> Guboglu, *op. cit.*, I, p. 94, No. 341.

<sup>68</sup> *Ibidem*, II, p. 307, No. 1064.

<sup>69</sup> Urechia, *History of the Romanians*, IV, p. 315–320.

<sup>70</sup> Guboglu, *op. cit.*, II, p. 315–316, No. 1097–1098.

Ioan Caragea to facilitate the procurement of timber and provisions in the villages along the river Olt, at current prices." The prefects were making difficulties. Ahmed adds that the products were for the poor population and not for the merchants<sup>71</sup>. On 20 November 1824, the Commander of Nicopolis asked Prince Grigore Ghica to send orders to the prefect to cut and dispatch the timber and fuelwood requested by the Giurgiu citadel. The price was to be stated by the prince and payment was to be made to the owners of the wood by his man. The Wallachians were to be paid for the transport of the goods on reaching the port<sup>72</sup>. On 24 November 1824 the Commander of Vidin wrote to Prince Grigore Ghica concerning the dispatch of the timber required for repairs to the launches, ships and the flooring of the Admiralty Arsenal. The cost of timber and of its transport from the forest to the Danube and from the Danube to Istanbul, was to be paid to the diplomatic agent of the Wallachian Prince at Istanbul<sup>73</sup>. In a letter of 27 September 1825, the Commander of Shishtov asks Prince Grigore Ghica to order his prefects to supply 300 waggonfuls of wood at the current price for his court<sup>74</sup>.

The price of fuelwood varied according to weather conditions. From a letter of 11 February 1826 from the Turkish military Commander of Brăila to Prince Grigore Ghica, we learn that the needy population in the Brăila citadel district, who had cut fuelwood in Wallachian forests, had to pay damages to forest owners. As it was a severe winter, the poor had to pay 12 gurushs for the haulage of the wood instead of 2 lei<sup>75</sup>. Another element that influenced the price of wood was the distance between the forest and the place of sale. The price of transport differed greatly depending on the distance, as there were no railways and good roads were few, most of them being mere dirt roads, hardly practicable in bad weather. *Notice sur la Roumanie* pointed out that the price of fuelwood ranged between 10 and 30 francs per cubic metre,<sup>76</sup> according to the place of sale. The price varied also according to the size and the quality of the timber. That accounts for the considerable differences in the prices charged in 1886 in the timber production centre of Butoiești (Gura Motrului).

According to the list published by "Revista Pădurilor"<sup>77</sup> the price of one hundred pieces of thick planks ranged between 87 and

<sup>71</sup> *Ibidem*, I, p. 225, No. 1101.

<sup>72</sup> *Ibidem*, I, p. 394, No. 1962.

<sup>73</sup> *Ibidem*, I, p. 394, No. 1960.

<sup>74</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 421, No. 2099.

<sup>75</sup> *Ibidem*, I, p. 433, No. 2159.

<sup>76</sup> *Notice*, p. 78.

<sup>77</sup> "Revista Pădurilor," I (1886), p. 63, 95, 159.

297 lei per hundred pieces, that of parquetry boards between 53 and 96.50 lei, that of staves between 10.80 and 144 lei. The variation of over 13 times depended on the variety of timber, whether oak or beech, on sizes and quality.

The Bucharest price list of 1886 clearly shows that the price of timber greatly varied according to its place of origin. The cheapest deal was that of Olt, the most expensive, that of Braşov.

We also mention the price lists for the towns of Ploieşti, Buzău, Călăraşi, Rîmnicu Vilcea, Rîmnicu Sărat and Caracal for 1886—1887. The items listed are the same: 1. building timber (oak and fir); 2. wheelwrights' wood (elm, beech, oak, ash); 3. fuelwood (brushwood, beech, willow, poplar, alder)<sup>78</sup>. These lists are valuable as they show what timber was used for the various items, they supply information concerning the items themselves, and are of interest for terminology.

Freedom of trade on the Danube and on the Black Sea as laid down in the Treaty of Adrianople (1829), and the rise in the number of the population with villages increasing in area and new towns, boroughs and villages being set up, increased the demand for timber. Ever larger quantities of building timber, wheelwrights' timber and fuelwood were needed. This resulted in intensified forest exploitation, especially in the plain and in the hilly districts, but also in the mountains where forests were accessible. Consequently the price of timber rose. The rise was not uniform; it was the greatest in the towns, especially in Bucharest and Iaşi and in the Danube ports, and then in the boroughs. In the mountain regions of difficult access, such as the Lotrul Valley, the rise was insignificant. Proof of it are two deeds dating from 1840 and 1848. Under the deed of 1840, one Manuilă Vangu of Voineasa binds himself to pay in logs to Mihalache Oromolu of Rîmnicul-Vîlcii a debt amounting to 465 lei, as follows: "2 1/2 lei for each log which is 3 stinjeni\* long and a palm and a half thick at the top, brought to the Brezoi sawmill, three lei and a quarter of a pint of brandy for each log"<sup>79</sup> which was two stinjeni and a half long and two palms thick at the top." Under the second document, several freeholders of Brezoi sell for the term of nine years "a piece of wooded land in the Vasilatul valley" as follows: "fine trees three and a half palms thick, 3 lei per tree"; other trees are sold for 15 parale a piece and "the small ones the size of a wagon

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<sup>78</sup> *Ibidem*, I, p. 31.

\* one stinjen = 1.96 m.

<sup>79</sup> Bărdaşu—Simeanu, *Brezoi*, p. 25—26, 78.



axle, twelve lei per hundred pieces."<sup>80</sup> According to *Notice sur la Roumanie* the value of the wood consumed in the country in 1866 amounts to 282,368,315 piastres or lei, while the value of the exported wood amounts to barely 3,171,910 lei, which is a little more than 1.1 per cent. Turkey ranked first with imports amounting to 2,837,249 lei, while Austria and Russia imported only 168,887 lei and 165,774 lei, respectively, worth of timber<sup>81</sup>.

In many cases the income brought in by forests is above the income derived from the rest of the estate. In the case of the Voinești estate, Iași county, the accounts for the year 1849<sup>82</sup> show that some 24 ha of woodland brought in more than all the other incomes put together. Fuelwood brought in 30,818 lei and 10 parale, sawn timber and wooden wares 4143 lei, branches 4,692 lei, the total figure being 39,653 lei and 10 parale, while the grain grown on the estate brought in 16,188 lei, hay 6,828 lei, sheep and lambs 596 lei and wool 608 and 7 parale. Details are given concerning the trade in wood. Thus : some 4904 cu.m. of fuelwood were sold to the Sturdza brickyard and in Iași ; and "sawn timber, pitchforks and other wares of bigger size, as well as ropes, troughs partly finished, sledges, wheels, spoons, charcoal." The expenditure in the forest, with the piling of the fuelwood and other work, totalled 4,430 lei, which is about the ninth part of the income brought in by the forest. Considering the comparatively small area of the forest on the Voinești estate, we wonder whether the forest, or at least part of it, had not been cleared out altogether. In any case it is certain that the income brought in by the forests on the estates located in the mountains was the essential part of total incomes as from the second half of the 19th century. Thus the wooden cases exported to Palestine for the packing of citrus fruit brought in the major part of the incomes of the Broșteni estate (on the Bistrița) during the interwar period.

In Transylvania, in 1829, the Banffy family collected 10,127 florins from the wooden materials yielded by the estates in the Cluj county mountains, the peasants on those estates being allowed to work the wood and to sell the resulting products. In 1847 the income had risen to nearly 40,000 florins<sup>83</sup>. During the latter half of the 19th century and the early 20th century up to the First World War, the price of wood continued to rise, but the profit was unevenly distributed, the smallest part of it going to the forest owners and

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<sup>80</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 26.

<sup>81</sup> *Notice*, p. 78.

<sup>82</sup> Platon, *The Feudal Estate*, p. 112.

<sup>83</sup> *History of Romania*, vol. III, p. 1007.

the major part to the sawmills, especially to those equipped with many frame saws, such as the Götz sawmill in Galați. World War I meant stagnation, but immediately after it prices began to rise again. When Romania became a unitary national state, the home market expanded and so did the forest area. The prices of the various categories of timber, especially softwood and oak, were going up, but the great crisis of 1929—1932 brought about a general and considerable drop in prices and consequently also in the price of timber. In the meantime a new concept was gaining ground: that timber could be turned to better account when processed by industry in the form of paper, pulp, plywood, veneer, and furniture, and that it was economic heresy to use wood, especially beech, merely as fuelwood. This concept has ruled after the Second World War when the socialist system has been installed in our country. At present wood, a noble and most valuable gift of nature, is being turned to better account.

## EXPORTS OF WOOD AND WOODEN PRODUCTS

*In the Carpatho-Danubian area wood has always been a main export article.*

From the earliest times to date wood has been an export article in the Carpatho-Danubian area. From this area wood was brought to the countries where forests had already been felled, as well as to the Danube and the Tisa plains.

No precise information is available about wood exports in ancient times. We know for certain that there have been trade relations with Egypt, Greece, Asia Minor and the towns on the Black Sea shore; from all those places merchants came over with goods and took back our own products. Egypt had always been in need of two articles, salt and wood. As these were plentiful and of good quality in our territory, we believe that the mangled Latin inscription mentioning Dacian goods or products sent to Egypt referred to wood and wooden products and possibly salt<sup>1</sup>.

The first documents mentioning wood exports date from the 15th century and refer to the timber exports to Constantinople. We have in mind the edicts issued by Sultan Bayazid II on 23 August 1484, immediately after the conquest of Chilia and Cetatea Albă. Wood was among the goods transmitted through these two great commercial centres and on which duty was paid<sup>2</sup>. The kind of wood is shown in a register dating from 1586–1587, which specifies that at Chilia boards were brought, as were house foundation planks (made of oak), log rafts and limewood ropes. Log rafts, too,

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<sup>1</sup> For old trade relation with the Mediterranean and Black Sea area, see V. Pârvan, *Die Nationalität der Kaufleute im Römischer Kaiserreiche*, Breslau, 1909; passim; V. Cristescu, *Economic Life in Roman Dacia*, Pitești, 1929, passim; concerning relations with Egypt, see Const. C. Giurescu, *On Romanian-Egyptian Relations and on Romania's contribution to the Construction of the Suez Canal*, in "Studii," X (1957), 1, p. 91–109.

<sup>2</sup> Irene Beldiceanu-Steinherr and Nicoră Beldiceanu, *Etudes Ottomano-Roumaines*, "Südost Forschungen," (XXIII) 1964, p. 38–39; Nicoră Beldiceanu, *Chilia et Cetatea Albă à travers les documents ottomans*, in "Revue des études islamiques," 1968, 2, p. 236, 246, 259.



came down the Dniester to Cetatea Albă. At both places the duty was of 3 per cent. The Turkish customs regulations concerning the Dobrudjan port of Constanța laid down the following: "If peasants bring to the port acorns and lime wood boards, and beams and poles to be taken to Istanbul, one asper per waggonful should be levied."<sup>3</sup> Regulation for Mangalia specified: "If boards..., beams, girders and poles come over by waggon, one asper should be levied per waggonful." The lime wood boards spoken of bring to mind the high forest in the northern part of Dobrudja where lime-trees have always been frequent. Acorns also come from Dobrudja's forests, and their exportation is to be accounted for by their use in tanning.

Constantinople was an important buyer of Romanian wood, especially for house building. Wood was used not only for the frame of houses, roofs, flooring, doors, windows, but also for the outside walls. The boards were not painted, as they are in American houses and in time they assumed a characteristic grey hew. Most of the wood for Constantinople's houses came from our territory, in the first place from Moldavia, through the port of Galați, and also from Dobrudja and Wallachia. Such houses burnt easily for fires were frequent and devastating; hundreds and sometimes even thousands of houses burnt down once a fire started so that the quantities of wood needed for reconstruction were considerable.

The Imperial Arsenal at Constantinople and the various shipyards also needed wood. Both warships and merchant vessels were made out of Romanian timber, sometimes by the Romanian shipyards of Galați, Brăila and Giurgiu whence they were sent to Constantinople by way of the Danube and the Black Sea.

A great deal of information is available relating to Romanian timber exports to Constantinople. A French report on Moldavia dating from 1714 states: "A large number of vessels sail from Constantinople to Galați... in order to load wood, wax and honey."<sup>4</sup> In *Descriptio Moldaviae*, Prince Dimitrie Cantemir placed wood at the top of the list of Moldavian export articles<sup>5</sup>. Timber was moreover sent to the Turkish citadel of Otchakov at the mouth of the Dnieper. A document of 1742 mentions that such a shipment was to sail from the port of Galați<sup>6</sup> and was later countermanded. Dense

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<sup>3</sup> Dersca, *Dobrudja*, p. 43.

<sup>4</sup> Aurelian Sacerdoțeanu, *Du nouveau concernant « Une enquête française sur les Principautés roumaines au commencement du XVIII-ème siècle »*, in "Rev. Hist. S.E. Eur.," VI (1929), p. 61—62.

<sup>5</sup> *Descriptio Moldaviae*, p. 75—77, 111.

<sup>6</sup> Academy, ms. 237, f. 82 and Iorga, *Studies and Documents*, VI, p. 225.

heavy cornelwood was in request in Egypt: out of it bludgeons were made<sup>7</sup>.

In the second half of the 18th century, Romanian wood was also exported to France. In April 1781 two vessels belonging to a Turkish merchant loaded timber in Galați for the French navy. The vessels were bound for Toulon<sup>8</sup>. Furthermore, on 25 May 1782, a contract was concluded between Constantin Moruzi, Prince of Moldavia, and the French Ambassador to Constantinople, for the transport of timber and masts for the French navy in Turkish vessels, on the Danube<sup>9</sup>. A French report dated Bucharest, 16 August 1835, points out that Barbu Știrbei, a great dignitary at the time and ruling prince to be, used to dispatch cask staves to Marseille<sup>10</sup>. After 1840, Romanian wood was also known in Bordeaux, the great French port at the Atlantic<sup>11</sup>. From 1843 to 1846 staves were made in an extensive oak forest belonging to Barbu Știrbei by 150 French wood workers that came from Maçonnais, Charolais and Franche-Comté under the leadership of a merchant, Condemine. The forest, made up of numberless secular trees, had been sold for 600,000 francs, 100,000 of which had to be paid in anticipation. In July 1844, Billecocq, the French Consul in Bucharest was invited to see the French wood workers at their job; he reported that three workers had felled an old oak in less than 12 minutes. Out of the trunk whose branches were cut off, fourteen cylindrical segments were obtained, out of which 375 staves were made, ready to be exported to Marseille or Bordeaux; when Billecocq visited the lumbering station, more than 6,000 oaks had been felled, and at the end of 1845 over 3,000,000 staves were ready for exportation. A worker made up to 302 staves a day<sup>12</sup>.

Towards the end of 1845, the chief engineer of the French port of Brest was sent to the Romanian Principalities to examine Romanian forests. Following his reports to the Navy Ministry in Paris and the information supplied by Consul Billecocq, the conclusion was reached that no country in Europe could supply oak wood of

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<sup>7</sup> Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, III, 2, p. 611.

<sup>8</sup> Academy, *English Consular Reports*, I, f. 16, report of June, 25th, 1782.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 13.

<sup>10</sup> Hurmuzaki, *Documents*, XVII, p. 512.

<sup>11</sup> C. Bușe, *Le commerce extérieur de la Moldavie par le port de Galatz durant la période 1837—1847*, in "Rev. Roum. d'Hist.," 1973, 2, p. 309.

<sup>12</sup> *Le nostre prigioni ou Le Journal de Billecocq, diplomate français*, t. I, Paris, 1849, p. 116—119.

such remarkable quality and in such abundance as the Danubian Principalities, especially the Principality of Moldavia<sup>13</sup>.

The French report of 1835 points out that English merchants were buying Romanian wood, too. The Bell firm of London is mentioned, whose agent, Anderson, residing in Bucharest, had exported large quantities of staves<sup>14</sup>. In 1836, English merchants bought considerable quantities of wood in Galați, especially masts, selecting "the biggest and the finest that came to the port."<sup>15</sup> As from 1839, Romanian building timber was reaching Antwerp, the great Belgian port and one of the most important in Europe<sup>16</sup>. In a statistical table it is shown that up to 10 October 1845, 205,697 boards had been loaded on thirty vessels in the port of Galați<sup>17</sup>. During the 1855–1860 period sawn timber was exported also to Athens and to the Mytilene Island<sup>18</sup>.

The wood required for the construction of the Suez Canal was brought from the Romanian countries. We are informed about it by a letter Prince Cuza wrote on 22 July/3 August 1864 to the Egyptian Khedive: "Immense quantities of timber from Romania's forests have been used in the construction of the Suez Canal and our merchants, following the path thus opened by these first shipments, have taken our grain repeatedly to the port of Alexandria"<sup>19</sup>. During the second half of the 19th century, Romanian timber invaded an increasing number of foreign markets<sup>20</sup>. In 1884 it was going as far as Algeria, and considerable quantities were being dispatched to Sudan where the British were laying railway lines. Romanian timber was also imported by Italy, Spain, the Netherlands and India. As the builder of the Suez Canal — Ferdinand de Lesseps — started work on the Panama Canal in Central America, Romanian timber also reached those distant parts<sup>21</sup>.

Ever larger quantities of timber were being exported. Before the great forestry companies possessing frame saws were set up in the second half of the 19th century, the exported timber had been turned out by small private sawmills moved by the streams —

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<sup>13</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 113.

<sup>14</sup> Hurmuzaki, *Documents*, XVII, p. 512.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 652, No. DCLI.

<sup>16</sup> C. Bușe, *op. cit.*, p. 309.

<sup>17</sup> Z. Furnică, *Documents Concerning Romanian Trade, 1473–1868*, Bucharest, 1931, p. 420.

<sup>18</sup> C. Bușe, *op. cit.*, p. 309.

<sup>19</sup> Academy, *Prince Cuza Archives*, vol. IV (No. 4860), f. 305–306.

<sup>20</sup> Păltănea, *Galați*, p. 959.

<sup>21</sup> *Bucarest*, in *Les capitales du monde*, Paris, 1910, p. 339.



brooks and rivers — in the mountainous and hilly districts. When the steam driven circular saws of the big enterprises came to be used, the quantity of timber increased considerably. In 1884 the Goetz Company, the main forestry enterprise, exported timber to the value of 1,000,000 francs in gold to Algeria and to France. In 1885 Romanian timber exports<sup>22</sup> totalled 7,760,400 lei in gold, out of which sawn timber amounted to 6,456,672 lei, "very ordinary wooden objects" to 846,291 lei, fuelwood to 163,720 lei, "common wooden objects" to 57,836 lei, "fine wooden objects" to 156,465 lei and the "extra fine ones" to 109,350 lei. On the other hand timber imports rose that year to 17,346,746 lei in gold, consequently exceeding exports by 9,586,346 lei in gold. The imported sawn timber accounted for 8,437,230 lei of the total, fine wooden objects for 4,376,886 lei, extra fine objects for 2,511,540 lei, very common ones for 1,091,444 lei and the ordinary ones for 682,944 lei. We also imported fuelwood to the value of 107,070 lei and charcoal to the value of 139,632 lei while our charcoal exports amounted to only 66 lei. The deficit of our balance of trade in timber in 1885 was of over 9,500,000 lei in gold, which shows better than anything else the deplorable condition of the forest economy at the time. In 1904, the timber exported from Galați amounted to 40,000 waggonloads of sawn timber and 120,000 cu.m. or 12,000 waggonloads of logs. Out of the total, 12,500 waggonloads were bound for Rotterdam and Amsterdam, and certain quantities were also dispatched to London and Liverpool, Marseille, Constantinople, Smyrna and Salonika, to Alexandria and to Batum on the Eastern shore of the Black Sea<sup>23</sup>.

Treasury registers, customs tariffs and Turkish firmans supply information on the assortments of timber dispatched to the Turkish shipyards in Giurgiu or exported to the Ottoman Empire and on the prices charged. Thus, Brâncoveanu's Treasury register shows that masts were being sent for ships as well as sawn timber for the building of launches, caïcs and deckless vessels<sup>24</sup>. And the firman of 11 February 1691 issued by Sultan Suleiman II requests of Constantin Brâncoveanu urgently to pay into the hands of Ali Pasha, the Danube Admiral, the sum of 8,717.50 gurus for the account of the tribute while the Ottoman Treasury was to contribute an identical sum. The money was required for ships that carried the provisions of the

<sup>22</sup> G. Stătescu, *Timber Trade with Other Countries*, in "Revista Pădurilor," I (1886), p. 162.

<sup>23</sup> See "L'Industrie roumaine," II, issue of January 23rd, 1905, p. 7; C. Bunge-țeanu. *The Timber Industry and Trade in Romania*, Bucharest, 1916, p. 68.

<sup>24</sup> *Register*, p. 37, 89—91, 110, 192, 314.

Ottoman state, for the building of ferries and caïcs, for the wages of 50 helmsmen and 400 cartsmen, for building timber and ropes, for 1,000 oars and for other things <sup>25</sup>.

In 1776 the price of sawn timber dispatched to Constantinople was very low <sup>26</sup>; at the time — on account of the prevailing abundance and the two-year exemption from tribute — foodstuff prices were also very low as shown by a contemporary, the historian Dionisie Eclesiarhul <sup>27</sup>.

Ten years later a considerable price rise was recorded <sup>28</sup>. Starting with 1792, the Moldavian Treasury register also mentioned prices for wood-cutting and freight of the sawn timber asked for at Constantinople <sup>29</sup>.

While Moldavia supplied timber for Constantinople and also for the Turkish citadels of Otchakov, Hotin, Bender, Cetatea Albă and Chilia <sup>30</sup>, Wallachia procured the sawn timber required by the Turkish citadels on the right bank of the Danube, from Cladova and Adakalé to Silistra, and Brăila to boot. About 1792 the Great Vizir requested Wallachia's Prince Mihai Sufu to supply timber for the great provision barns that were to be built at Silistra and Ruschuk, from Wallachia's forests and to have it dispatched to destination at a reasonable price <sup>31</sup>.

It was also Romanian timber that was used for the vessels ordered by the Porte in the Galați and Giurgiu shipyards. On 16 October 1787 Sultan Abdul Hamid I sent a firman to Prince Alexandru Ipsilanti of Moldavia, demanding that he should supply sawn timber and 14 caïcs. Wallachia's Prince was to dispatch 26 caïcs to Ali Pasha, Military Commander of Ismail <sup>32</sup>.

In 1788, some time between 10 January and 7 February, the Great Vizir acknowledged receipt of four barges loaded with sawn timber delivered in Galați. The acknowledgement was sent to Prince Alexandru Ipsilanti <sup>33</sup>. A letter dated 8 November 1822 has been preserved, wherein the manager of the Admiralty Arsenal at Constantinople lets Prince Ioniță Sandu Sturdza know about certain commitments

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<sup>25</sup> Guboglu, *Catalogue of Turkish Documents*. II, p. 202, No. 671; cf. I, p. 44, No. 94.

<sup>26</sup> Iorga, *Documents and Researches*, p. 161. Guboglu, *op. cit.*, II, p. 338, No. 1184.

<sup>27</sup> Dionisie Eclesiarhul, *The Chronograph of Wallachia*, ed. C. Nicolaescu-Plopșor, Rîmnicu Vilcea, 1934, p. 14–15.

<sup>28</sup> Păltănea, *Galați*, p. 268–269.

<sup>29</sup> Iorga, *Documents and Researches*, p. 63.

<sup>30</sup> Guboglu, *op. cit.*, II, p. 255, No. 854.

<sup>31</sup> *Ibidem*, I, p. 129, No. 509.

<sup>32</sup> *Ibidem*, II, p. 336–337, No. 1176.

<sup>33</sup> *Ibidem*, II, p. 349, No. 1220.

and duties of the princes of Moldavia, relative to the yearly supply of timber required for the vessels of the Imperial fleet and to its transport to Galați. The timber was to be paid for by the Imperial Treasury after its arrival at Constantinople. As the year's supply consisted of 2,200 poles and beams as well as of 10,750 boards for the hull, and of other kinds of timber of various sizes, it was recommended that measures be taken to collect and transport the timber in good time; after delivery the quantities were to be entered in the Treasury register <sup>34</sup>. We also mention a letter from the Commander of Brăila to the same Ioniță Sandu Sturdza, which includes a list of the precise quantity of boards and beams to be supplied by Moldavia for the building of four vessels for the Ottoman Danube fleet. The list had been made in accordance with the indications of engineer Costi, a resident of Brăila, who had been entrusted with the construction of the vessels. The Commander adds that the weather was not propitious for felling the necessary timber in the woods; the boards and beams might be purchased from the merchants' stocks of the previous year, and if possible, at a lower price than the Commander had paid the previous year to the merchants in Brăila and Galați, namely 5 piastres per beam <sup>35</sup>.

The supplies demanded by the Porte often included elm boards for big gun carriages and rifle butts. Thus, on 4 May, 1787, Sultan Abdul Hamid I sent a repeat order to Prince Alexandru Ipsilanti, to speed up the cutting and dispatch of the quantities of elm boards required for 500 gun carriages, and to deliver them to the envoy sent to Moldavia for the purpose <sup>36</sup>. Similar "firmans" were also sent for the gun carriages of the citadels of Bender (March 8 1788, Nicopolis, Ruschuk, Silistra, Hirșova, Măcin (all of them at the end of 1818 or the beginning of 1819) and Cladova (September 1 1824) <sup>37</sup>.

The Turkish citadels on the bank of the Danube were also supplied with fuelwood <sup>38</sup>. On 12 February 1788, Sultan Abdul Hamid issued an order to Prince Alexandru Ipsilanti of Moldavia to procure fuelwood and hay for the armies on the borders. Convoys of 10—15 waggons were to be dispatched wherever they were needed. On 15 August 1822 Hussein, former governor of Silistra and commander of that citadel, stated that he had received from Tudorache, the representative of Wallachia at Călărași, 6,000 waggonsful of wood for the

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<sup>34</sup> *Ibidem*, II, p. 472—473, No. 1669.

<sup>35</sup> *Ibidem*, II, p. 496, No. 1757.

<sup>36</sup> *Ibidem*, II, p. 321, No. 1117.

<sup>37</sup> *Ibidem*, II, p. 356, No. 1251; I, p. 258, No. 1303 and p. 385, No. 1916.

<sup>38</sup> *Ibidem*, II, p. 353, No. 1237; p. 458, No. 1614; I, p. 431—452, No. 2254; p. 396, No. 1971.



Ottoman army during the 12 May 1821–31 July 1822 interval. On 29 June 1826 Hussein Pasha wrote from Nicopolis to Grigore Ghica, Prince of Wallachia, requesting him to order that 2,000 wagonloads of fuelwood should be supplied to the Ruschuk district, as the Nicopolis region lacked in forests. It was with Romanian timber that limestone was burnt in the Turkish citadels, as we learn from a letter written by Mehmed, a Turkish official entrusted with the construction of, and repairs to, buildings. The letter was sent on 28 December 1824 to Prince Grigore Ghica who was asked to dispatch as speedily as possible a large quantity of fuelwood for the limestone required for the repairs to the Giurgiu citadel.

It was also with Romanian wood that the fishing hurdles in the Brăila backwaters were often built. The Great Vizir wrote on 18 January 1828 and again on 19 February 1828 to Prince Ioniță Sandu Sturdza that 1,600 trees were needed for the purpose <sup>39</sup>.

Furthermore, considerable quantities of Romanian timber were also used for the bridges over the Danube and the Dniester. When Dimitrie Cantemir was appointed Prince of Moldavia in 1710, the Sultan demanded of him to complete the construction of the bridge over the Danube <sup>40</sup>. On 19 February 1788, Abdul Hamid I asked Prince Alexandru Ipsilanti to send to the Porte boards for the gun carriages of the Imperial arsenal; to cut timber in Moldavia's forests and to transport it to Isaccea for the construction and maintenance of the bridge there. The cost of the aforesaid materials was to be deduced from Moldavia's tribute. Less than a month later, on 9–10 March, a new letter was sent: pontoon boats, sawn timber and whatever else was needed for the construction of a bridge over the Dniester were to be supplied; apart from other sums 12,000 aspers were to be deduced from Moldavia's tribute <sup>41</sup>. On 24 January 1811, although the country was then under Russian occupation, the obligation of bridge building was unchanged. The accounts of the Wallachian Treasure show that for the Oltenița-Turtucaia bridge, timber had been cut in the forests, and the carpenters and blacksmiths that had worked on the bridge as well as the navvies, had been paid. But no payment had been made for the transport of the wood. Formerly a bridge had been built at Hirșova, again over the Danube <sup>42</sup>.

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<sup>39</sup> *Ibidem*, II, p. 560, No. 1991, 1994.

<sup>40</sup> Dimitrie Cantemir, *The History of the Ottoman Empire*, ed. Iosif Hodoș, Bucharest, 1876, p. 789.

<sup>41</sup> Guboglu, *op. cit.*, II, p. 353, 357, No. 1238, 1254.

<sup>42</sup> Cojocaru, *Documents*, I, p. 91–92.

Timber supplies to Constantinople followed one another uninterruptedly. In 1794—1795 the Great Vizir asked Prince Mihai Șușu to have 200,000 pieces of timber rafted to Galați whence they were to be transported to the Admiralty Arsenal in Constantinople<sup>43</sup>. A Moldavian memorial of 1802 mentioned the innumerable wooden stakes brought to Galați “for the needs of the Arsenal of the Porte and of the houses of the Greeks in Constantinople.”<sup>44</sup>

An entry of the Moldavian treasury<sup>45</sup> shows the price of the sawn timber and of various other articles (ropes, oars switches, charcoal, shingles) sent to the citadel of Bender “in 1804 and in 1805 up to the end of the ninth of September”: 26,317 lei and 18 bani. The sum of 6,135 lei and 90 bani was added “for the expense of making two pontoon bridges for Sulina” and moreover 2,905 lei and 12 bani, in payment for the sawn timber fashioned and dispatched to Galați “for the Imperial Arsenal,” plus 8,148 lei and 45 bani “in payment for the cutting of the timber sent to the port of Galați for Tsar’grad,” and finally 4,120 lei “in payment for the timber and for the transportation of it to Galați for the needs of the Imperial Arsenal.” The expenditure for these various supplies to Bender and Constantinople totalled 47,626 lei and 45 bani. In 1805—1806, the cost of the timber dispatched to the Imperial Arsenal was of 11,053 lei and 57 bani<sup>46</sup>. Naturally, the supplies ceased during the war of 1806—1812, when the Principalities were occupied by the Tsar’s armies, but they were resumed immediately after the war. 55,189 pieces of timber were sent to Constantinople in 1813; 103,182 in 1814 and 10,872 in 1815; 26,907 pieces in 1816; 19,770 in 1817; 29,810 in 1818 and 39,578 in 1819. An official of the Arsenal, mentioned in a document of 1818, resided in the port of Galați for the purpose of forwarding the timber and was paid by the Moldavian Treasury.

In 1822 the Constantinople Arsenal requested 2,200 poles and beams and 10,750 boards for ships’ hulls<sup>47</sup>. The expenditure incurred for the Arsenal timber over June 1822—July 1823 amounted to 60,982 lei and 30 bani<sup>48</sup>. To Galați were brought: 400 mast rafts, 8,400 deals, 1,000 beams, 1,850 beams for the body of ships, 40,000 staves and 200 poles. The expenditure increased in the follow-

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<sup>43</sup> Sergiu Columbeanu, *Stidelights on the History of Navigation in Romania*, in “Studii,” t. 25, (1972), 4, p. 735.

<sup>44</sup> Iorga, *Proof of Consciousness of the Moldavian Boyars in “Hard Times”* in “Literatură și Artă,” 1901, p. 751—752.

<sup>45</sup> Iorga, *Documents and Researches*, p. 77.

<sup>46</sup> Păltănea, *op. cit.*, p. 286, 287.

<sup>47</sup> Guboglu, *op. cit.*, II, p. 386, No. 1363.

<sup>48</sup> Păltănea, *op. cit.*, p. 447—448.

ing years as shown by contemporary documents; it amounted to 73,998 lei in 1823—1824; to 75,538 lei and 66 bani in 1825; and to 67,818 lei and 51 bani in 1826. In 1825 a shed was built in Galați for storing the timber until its dispatch to Constantinople and it cost 7,024 lei <sup>49</sup>.

An entry for the year 1825 in the register of Moldavia's Treasury provides edifying information concerning "the payment of the timber for the Arsenal, made and dispatched to Tsar'grad" (75,538 lei and 66 bani). It is also specified: "188 rafts with 1,300 masts from Suceava, made and rafted down to Piatra, 40 lei per raft... Haulage from Piatra to Galați... On 102 rafts, 610 masts from Neamț... For 9,086 fir deals made in Neamț county, one leu per deal... For 67 rafts with 934 fir beams made in Neamț county... For 480 poles made in Neamț county... For 1,406 shipbuilding beams, three lei per piece... For 84,741 staves, 15 parale per piece... For 1,500 cornel-wood bludgeons, 10 lei per hundred. For 7,200 cables and 8,000 ropes... The salary of the receivers of the Arsenal timber... The wages of the navvies working in the Arsenal and the binding of the masts... The expenditure of the boat builder who has come from Brăila to attend the unfolding of operations... 300 lei given to... architect Costi for diminishing the dimensions of the timber... Warship timber, prow masts... fir door jambs. Total: 143,756 lei and 117 bani." <sup>50</sup>

The cutting and hauling of the sawn timber needed for Constantinople were paid for in cash and at prices that suited the workers. An imperial ordinance of 1826, specifies: "When sawn timber is requested from the two countries... the ruling princes of the time should be informed of the sum demanded, and whatever is demanded should be hauled to the boundaries of the two countries; the price of cutting and hauling the timber should be paid to the subjects [*raiale*] by the architects so as to suit them and in cash, but they should not be made to haul whatever is demanded, timber, or other things, outside the boundaries of the country." The ordinance does not mention what payment has to be made for the wood itself. We infer that the wood was always taken from the prince's forests and that no payment was made, as it was considered to be an obligation of the prince to the Porte. This would also account for the low prices paid in Galați for the sawn timber and the wooden products destined to Constantinople. Taking advantage of its political authority, the Porte paid less than the market price, yet no more

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<sup>49</sup> Academy, *Documents*, MLXXVIII/89.

<sup>50</sup> Iorga, *Documents and Researches*, p. 145.



than 15 or 20 per cent. The payment of the wood cutters, raftsmen and carriers was that charged in the market or very close to it as otherwise they would not have come to work in the forest or as rafters on the Bistrița, the Siret and the Danube.

There were certainly also unfair practices. The officials who were entrusted with the supervision of the felling sometimes took advantage of their position and felled more than was required. At other times the timber kept for too long a time in water or not protected from the rain, rotted and had to be replaced. On 19 October 1826, Suleiman Abdullah, the manager of the Admiralty Arsenal in Constantinople, wrote to Prince Grigore Ghica in Bucharest that the timber he had sent rotted and an order had been issued from High Quarters that other timber should be cut in the forests and mountains of Wallachia, for which reason two soldiers who were also carpenters had been sent. The Prince was asked to take steps in order to dispatch the timber, as it was needed for the Admiralty Arsenal <sup>51</sup>.

The war of 1828—1829 concluded by the Peace of Adrianople, put an end to the compulsory deliveries to the Porte. The compulsion ensued from the right of pre-emption of the Porte for a number of products, including sawn timber. With free trade and free navigation on the Danube and on the Black Sea, a new epoch began in timber as well as in grain exports. The prices charged could now be those ruling in the market and exports to Western Europe, which had begun at the end of the 18th century, developed apace <sup>52</sup>.

This, however, does not mean that the timber trade with the Ottoman Empire had come to an end. In 1830, Turkish merchants are mentioned at Dorna <sup>53</sup>. The Frenchman Bois le Comte points out in a memorial sent from Bucharest to Paris on 15 May 1834 that Moldavian building timber exports from Galați had amounted to 500,000 francs in gold both in 1832 and in 1833. He furthermore adds that in Galați, big rafts were formed which were dispatched to Constantinople in tow of ships. "Many such rafts were being sent to Egypt, but the Sultan had for some time forbidden that they should sail for that destination <sup>54</sup>. The German Consul Wilhelm von Kotzebue also points out that rafts were coming down the Siret to Galați whence they were tied to ships and towed to Constantinople. "But when a storm, however insignificant, broke out, the

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<sup>51</sup> Guboglu, *Catalogue*, I, p. 462, No. 2305.

<sup>52</sup> Guboglu, *Catalogue*, II, p. 422, No. 1481.

<sup>53</sup> Corneliu Istrati, *The Struggle of Dorna Peasants against the Boyar Rule in "Anuarul A. D. Xenopol,"* Iași, IX (1972), p. 193.

<sup>54</sup> Hurmuzaki, *Documents*, XVII, p. 375.

rafts were untied and left to drift and one can readily imagine how many were lost under such circumstances.”<sup>55</sup>

Reports of Sardinia's Consuls specify that in 1850 sawn timber exports from Galați to Italy amounted to 210,000 new Italian liras (a lira was worth a gold franc) while in 1851 they amounted to only 90,000 liras<sup>56</sup>.

The number of timber exporters was on the increase. According to official documents, in Galați, in 1860, the timber trade was handled by Aristide Diamandopoulo, Neculai Gridov, Ali Iasagi, G. P. Mantu, Neculai Matei, and Constantin Sculi<sup>57</sup>. Judging by their names, there were two Romanians, two Greeks, one Bulgarian and one Turk. Actually, there were a greater number of Turks among timber merchants, but they resided in Neamț county, at Piatra Neamț, and even at Dorna, near the production centres, where they could deal with the owners of the forests. During Cuza's reign, Turkish timber merchants at Piatra Neamț had difficulties with the Romanian authorities for reasons that are not known exactly, and were taken into custody in 1861. After the intervention of the Turkish Foreign Minister, the Turkish merchants were set free and left for Constantinople<sup>58</sup>.

The incident with the Turkish timber merchants at Piatra did not impair the relations of the Romanian Government with the Turks. On 22 July/3 August 1862, Prince Cuza sent Costache Negri a letter to let him know that at the Porte's request he and the Council of Ministers had decided to pay the sum of 10,000 ducats to the envoy of the Porte in Galați, for the account of the tribute, so that the timber required by the Imperial Navy should be purchased<sup>59</sup>.

Since for a long time timber exports had gone especially to Constantinople, a number of terms of Turkish origin connected to wood have entered the Romanian language. To begin with, the generic term for sawn timber, *cherestea*, then *manele* (poles by means of which logs were rolled from the river bank into the water); *raele* (smaller pieces of wood used for rafts); *raeluțe* (two-sided beams used

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<sup>55</sup> Wilhelm von Kotzebue, *Travel Diary of 1840*, published by C. Turcu, in *Rareș Yearbook*, p. 98.

<sup>56</sup> D. Bodin, *Documents concerning the Economic Relations Between the Romanian Principalities and the Kingdom of Sardinia*, Bucharest, 1941, p. 230, supp. II.

<sup>57</sup> Păltănea, *op. cit.*, p. 826. An Englishman, Alfred Powell, manager of the meat-packing factory of Galați, also had a side line in timber exports and in November 1863, he had 270 rafts prepared for export (*Ibidem*, p. 846).

<sup>58</sup> Giurescu, *Prince Cuza*, p. 120–121.

<sup>59</sup> Academy, *Prince Cuza Archives*, vol. IV, f. 72–74.

for raft straps<sup>60</sup>). Other terms of Turkish origin are *tavan* (ceiling)<sup>61</sup>, *duşumea* (board floor of rooms), *giurgiuvea* (window frame); *țini-chele* (thin boards, very much like fencing boards<sup>62</sup>), *caplama* (special way of joining boards), *burghiu* (gimlet).

In 1872, an enterprise was set up in Galați which was concerned with lumbering as well as with woodworking by means of steam-driven saws. This was the Goetz company working under the registered sign of the P. and C. Goetz & Comp., which was soon to become the greatest timber exporter of the country.

The Goetz Company made considerable profits and its example was followed by others. Indeed, such companies were set up in numbers. In 1878, the I. I. Bally sawmill was built up, and in the following decades a number of great companies appeared: "Tarcău," for the exploitation of the Moldavian forests in the Valley of the Tarcău and of its tributaries; "Lotru," for the forests in the Lotru Valley and Basin in Oltenia; "Forestiera Română" and "Tișița" for the exploitation of the forests in Vrancea and Putna counties. In 1910, the four big lumbering companies — Goetz, Tarcău, Lotru and Tișița — joined an important international timber cartel<sup>63</sup> in order to secure outlets in the international market and ward off competition among themselves as well as with foreign companies. In 1913 other two great lumbering companies were set up: "Drajna" for the exploitation of the forests in the valleys of the Teleajen and Telejenel with the respective basins, and "Oltul" for the exploitation of the forests of Oltenia.

Timber and log exports were intensified and the number of exporters increased. In 1893 there were in Galați another two exporting firms, Weissenburg and Brotiner, which were unable to face the competition of the Goetz Company. At the beginning of 1893 the number of Galați timber exporters totalled 37.

In 1918, when Romania became a unitary independent national state, her forest area increased by about 143 per cent. To the

<sup>60</sup> Țăranu, *Rafting*, p. 49.

<sup>61</sup> Giurescu, *History of Bucharest*, p. 281. Old Turkish houses and quite a number of the boyars' houses in Romanian towns in imitation of the Constantinople fashion had ceilings made of fine wood arranged in such a way as to form a geometrical figure or a certain pattern (a rosette). I have seen such a ceiling in an old house at Mangalia and similar ceilings are to be found at Brăila (a specimen is to be seen in the local History Museum); the old building of the Ministry of Finance in Bucharest also had an elegant wooden ceiling.

<sup>62</sup> Academy, *Prince Cuza Archives*, vol. XLV, f. 20, In a note dating from 1865, which lists the various materials purchased for the construction of the Cezar Librecht house in Bucharest, today University House, we find entries referring to 1800 Văleni boards and 3600 Ruher (Rucăr) boards.

<sup>63</sup> *Dates*, p. 230.



companies working in Wallachia and Moldavia were now added the companies of "Bucovina," "Lomaș," "Feltrinelli," etc. Sawn timber exports consequently increased and the capitalist organization of exports was extended. In 1928 the Cartel of the Timber Exporters of Romania was organized, being made up of all the great forest exploiting enterprises, "Foresta" ranking first. The Cartel set the same prices for all its members, and consequently did away with competition; it established the export quota of each member as well as the kind of sawn timber each was to turn out. In 1936 another cartel appeared: The Timber Record-Keeping Office, which centralized and co-ordinated the sales of the fifteen big lumbering companies.

In the 1923—1925 period timber accounted for 16 per cent of Romania's total exports, while in the 1936—1938 period it accounted for only 9.4 per cent. In 1929 Romania was exporting 1,896,880 tons of wood valued at 4,262,089,000 lei and accounting for 14.7 per cent of total exports. In 1930 timber exports amounted to only 1,522, 932 tons valued at 2,845, 986,000 lei and accounting for only 10 per cent of total exports<sup>64</sup>. This was the consequence of the world crisis brought about by the New York stock exchange crash at the end of the preceding year. In 1929 Romania exported 1,006,842 tons of softwood timber, with the figure decreasing to 749,676 in 1930 and 785,192 tons of fuelwood, which went down to 673,722 in 1930. The decrease is less considerable for oak trunks and sawn timber, namely from 21,174 tons to 20,785 tons, and for trunks and sawn timber of other kinds of hardwoods : from 79,633 to 73,732 tons. In 1930 most of our exports went to Hungary : 863,113 tons of which 649,676 tons of fuelwood and 183,950 tons of softwood timber. Next came Egypt with 123,285 tons of softwood and 135,032 tons of different other assortments; Germany with 103,249 tons of softwood; Greece with 97,300 tons and Italy with 66,716 tons of softwood. We moreover exported 13,495 tons of softwood to the United States, four tons of softwood to Norway and one ton to Sweden. The last two figures are given as a matter of curiosity.

After World War II, the exportation of sawn timber and wooden products has been resumed. The following tendency prevails in recent years : the volume of wood exported in the form of raw materials is decreasing and the volume of wooden fabricates goes up. Thus pulpwood exports went down from 706,300 cu.m. in 1965 to 563,100 cu.m. in 1971 and to 327,600 in 1973 while in 1972 a minimum

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<sup>64</sup> Drimbă, *Etude*, p. 24.

figure of 274,600 cu.m. was registered<sup>65</sup>. Softwood timber, which had increased from 867,800 cu.m. in 1960 to 1,422,300 cu.m. in 1972, decreased to 1,176,500 in 1973; hardwood timber, which had risen from 360, 900 cu.m. in 1960 to 751,000 cu.m. in 1970, gradually decreased to 561,600 cu.m. by 1973. On the other hand, plywood went up from 23,500 cu.m. in 1960 to 97,500 cu.m. in 1973, with a maximum figure — 112,200 cu.m. — reached in 1963. Particle boards made a spectacular stride from 321,700 sq.m. in 1960 to 9,631,900 sq.m. in 1973 — a rise of about 30-fold. Fibreboards, went up from 10,425,300 sq.m. in 1965 to 17,834,000 sq.m. in 1973, the maximum figure reached being 19,038,000 in 1972. Furniture manufacture registered a remarkable rise : from 61,900,000 lei to 826,200,000 lei — a 13.3-fold rise. Paper exports also rose considerably : from 1,400 tons in 1960 to 76,900 tons in 1973 — a rise of more than ninefold, with the maximum figure reaching in 1970 103,800 tons. The double tendency of decreasing raw materials exports and increasing the exports of manufactured products is a very sound tendency which should be intensified though, of course, within the limits set by the annual forest growth, which means without diminishing the forest area of the country.

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<sup>65</sup> *Statistical Yearbook of the Socialist Republic of Romania, 1974*, Bucharest, 1974, p. 328.

## RAFTS AND RAFTING

*Rafting has been practised in the Carpatho-Danubian area from time immemorial.*

Smaller pieces of timber — fencing boards, vine props, shingles and wooden containers of every kind used to be transported by carts and in winter time by sledges. The bigger pieces of timber — masts and logs — were rafted by water. Compared with the haulage by carts, rafting was an easier and cheaper means of taking wood over great distances, especially as it was favoured by the large number and the flow direction of the rivers, more particularly in Moldavia and Transylvania. The logs and the bigger pieces of timber from the forests in Neamţ and Suceava counties, came down the Bistriţa and the Moldova and subsequently down the Siret, to reach the port of Galaţi, where part of them were loaded onto vessels while part of the rafts continued along the Danube as far as Sulina and then on the Black Sea to Constantinople. The river Siret was like a great thoroughfare down which rafts came from all the counties crossed by the river. Rafts also came down the river Prut.

In Transylvania, the rafts came down the Mureş, its tributary, the Sebeş, as well as down the two rivers Someş and the three rivers Criş, which all flow into the Tisa. In Wallachia, the Jiu, the Olt, with its tributary, the Lotru, as well as the Argeş and the Dimboviţa were used for the same purpose. Apart from logs and sawn timber, the other products transported by raft included : containers of every kind, fuelwood, building timber, stone, salt, wool, grain, cheese, cattle, sheep, hay, bottles of mineral water and window panes. At a time when all roads were dirt roads, hardly practicable in spring and autumn when it rained heavily, it was most advantageous to transport such goods by water. Rafting has been and still is used also in other countries such as Poland, Czechoslovakia, Norway, Sweden and Finland as well as in Canada and in the USSR (the Siberian territory)<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>1</sup> According to Deffontaine's *L'Homme et la forêt*, p. 112, between the two World Wars some six hundred thousand cubic metres of timber were rafted from Czechoslovakia



In our opinion rafting had been practised in the Carpatho-Danubian area from time immemorial, in pre-historic times and certainly at the time of the Dacians and Daco-Romans. There are no documentary proofs thereof, but this is a conclusion drawn from the logic of economic facts. The term used in the Dacians' language for raft might very well be similar to *plută* considering that both the Dacians and the Slavs were of Indo-European origin. Linguists consider that the Romanian word for raft (*plută*) is of Slavic origin, and indeed, the term is used in Bulgarian as well as in Serbian<sup>2</sup>. This does not mean that it was the Slavs who introduced rafting on this territory. During the early and the later Middle Ages, rafting continued on both sides of the Carpathians. Ioan Bogdan opines that the Saxons used to come by raft down the Bistrița as far as Piatra Neamț even before the Moldavian State had been founded<sup>3</sup>. Rafting is first mentioned in a Moldavian document of 13 March 1466, when Stephen the Great exempted the village of Negoști on the Negru brook, a village belonging to Tarasie, Bishop of Roman, from all taxes and excises; the villagers were not to pay excise on fish, whether salt or fresh, on cloth, linen, iron, rafts, pots, wooden vessels, honey, etc.<sup>4</sup> The Negru brook may very well be the Neagra, a tributary of the Bistrița, which carries rafts to this day.

As the Romanian countries supplied most of the timber needed in Constantinople and in the Turkish citadels on both banks of the Danube and on the Dniester, we can easily imagine that the quantity of timber transported by water was considerable. Account should also be taken of the timber needed for our own towns, from the planks that served to pave the more important roads of the towns to the beams and other pieces of timber needed for the construction of houses and churches.

A great deal of information concerning the timber that was rafted down the Siret is available both from travellers' accounts and from the Treasury accounts and the documents of the Ottoman chancellery. In a travel diary dating from 1763 Ahmed Resmi mentions the timber transported down the Siret<sup>5</sup>. The timber going to Galați was subjected in the port to the usual customs duties if exported,

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to Germany every year. In Scandinavia, timber floating is one of the main forestry pursuits as the length of the floatable water network is of 3,270 km; 17,736,925 tree trunks were floated in 1927 (*Ibidem*, p. 113).

<sup>2</sup> See *D.M.R.L.* under *plută*. Concerning rafting in ancient times see also Michel Devèze, *Histoire des forêts*, p. 47.

<sup>3</sup> I. Bogdan, *Documents of Stephen the Great*, II, p. 138.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibidem*, I, p. 96–97.

<sup>5</sup> "Arhiva istorică," I, p. 183.

and moreover to a special tax in favour of St. Spiridon Monastery in Iași<sup>6</sup>. A table drawn up in Galați on 12 December 1822 lists all the timber dispatched to the Ottoman Admiralty Arsenal. Altogether 33,175 pieces of timber were dispatched, including 4,400 barrel staves, 416 linewood boards for ships' shells, 77 wooden poles, one raft, the remainder consisting of boards of different kinds, sawn timber and tree trunks<sup>7</sup>. The registers of the Moldavian Treasury record in 1823 that 3,615 masts making up 595 rafts had come to Galați<sup>8</sup>. In 1822 the French traveller Lejeune pointed out that from Galați the rafts reached Constantinople by way of the Danube and the Black Sea and that most of the timber required for the houses on the Bosphorus was coming from Moldavia's forests<sup>9</sup>. The *Règlement Organique* of Wallachia (1 July 1831) makes no mention of rafting while that of Moldavia (1 January 1832)<sup>10</sup> includes the following provision in art. 158: "As to the rivers Moldova and Bistrița which flow into the Siret, they will be further used as they were in the past, for the transport of sawn timber and building timber, without the mills, dikes and bridges on those rivers being destroyed." Information dating from 1839 tells of goods rafted down the Bistrița from Transylvania, including window panes, cases of mineral water, as well as a hundred rafts of timber of every kind<sup>11</sup>. A German traveller, Wilhelm Hamm, noted that in 1858 enormous quantities of timber were being transported down the Siret and that if "the devastation of forests continued as heretofore, Moldavia would one day find herself devoid of timber."<sup>12</sup> In Galați there were two places where timber could be stored: a big plot of ground some 646 metres long on the bank of the Danube<sup>13</sup>, and a smaller plot on the "Wood Enclosure Street." It was estimated that in 1895 "more than 12,000 rafts" had come down the Bistrița to Piatra Neamț<sup>14</sup> (33 rafts a day) and that in 1897 "about 8,000 rafts" had passed by way of Tulgheș (22 rafts a day). Even if these figures are not alto-

<sup>6</sup> P. Râșcanu, *The Wages and Incomes of Moldavian Boyars in 1776*, p. 67—68.

<sup>7</sup> Guboglu, *Catalogue*, II, p. 478, No. 1689.

<sup>8</sup> Sergiu Columbeanu, *Aspects of the History of Navigation in Romania*, in "Studii," 25 (1972), 4, p. 735.

<sup>9</sup> *Voyage*, p. 21.

<sup>10</sup> *Règlement Organique de la Principauté de Moldavie* [no date], p. 215.

<sup>11</sup> Platon, *The Feudal Estate in Moldavia close to the 1848 Revolution*, p. 15, footnote 10.

<sup>12</sup> Leonid Boicu, *Transports in Moldavia between 1848 and 1864*, in the volume *Development of Moldavia's economy between 1848 and 1864*, Bucharest, 1963, p. 456.

<sup>13</sup> Păltănea, *Galați*, p. 853—854.

<sup>14</sup> D. G. Ionescu, *Rafting on the Bistrița*, in "Revista Pădurilor," XII (1898), p. 207—208.

gether right, one thing is certain : rafting down the Bistrița and the Siret as far as Galați was carried out at an intensive rate.

The fiscal census of 1820 in Putna county recorded among the Focșani ratepayers, thirty-five whose names are supplemented by the terms "from among raftsmen."<sup>15</sup>

Rafting was also carried out down the Prut. According to a note of 30 January (old style) 1864, in 1862 "3,000 kg of grain were rafted from Sculeni to Galați, while in 1863, 10,000 kg had been thus transported, with another 10,000 kg stored at Ștefănești."<sup>16</sup>

In Trasylvania, the Mureș was the main rafting channel. Rafts made up of logs and sawn timber came down that river for the timber merchants in Reghinul Săsesc<sup>17</sup> and in the settlements on the middle and lower reaches of the river; the rafts sometimes carried salt blocks and grain. A special feature of rafting down the Mureș consisted in the transportation of log houses. All the timber work from the foundation planks to the roof, made by specialists from the Gheorghieni area, was rafted down to the Luduș area then carted to the village of destination and assembled as all the pieces of timber bore special signs and numbers<sup>18</sup>. Logs, sawn timber and other products were also transported down the rivers Someș and Criș, though low waters in times of drought sometimes prevented rafting<sup>19</sup>.

In Wallachia rafts were used down the Olt and its tributary, the Lotru. On the Lotru logs were taken as far as Brezoi where there were sawmills. The number of rafts going down the Olt could not be compared to that going down the Bistrița. In 1903 about 1,000 rafts went down the Olt, about 1500 of them coming from Ciineni and around 850 from the Lotru. The total amounted to some 25,000 cu.m. of timber<sup>20</sup>, as against the hundreds of thousands that went down the Bistrița. Timber went down the river Argeș to Bucharest, mostly wooden pavement slabs. Logs were also floated on the upper reaches of the Dîmbovița. Bonnet, Inspector General and Dipl. Eng. belonging to the French Civil Mission pointed out on 3 November 1864 to rafting possibilities between Tirgoviște and Bucharest<sup>21</sup>.

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<sup>15</sup> Const. C. Giurescu, *The Population of the Putna County in 1820*, Bucharest, 1941, p. 31—36.

<sup>16</sup> Giurescu, *Prince Cuza*, p. 406, footnote 2.

<sup>17</sup> Bielz, *Siebenbürgen*, p. 294.

<sup>18</sup> Vlăduțiu, *Romanian Ethnography*, p. 302.

<sup>19</sup> Bielz, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

<sup>20</sup> Vlăduțiu, *op. cit.*, p. 250.

<sup>21</sup> Giurescu, *Contributions*, p. 241.



There were two great categories of rafts, according to the kind of timber used: rafts of round unworked timber and rafts of timber worked by means of saws or hatchets<sup>22</sup>. They bore different names according to the destination of timber and to its dimensions<sup>23</sup>. The logs of a raft were secured and tied together with bast rope made of hazel, elm, hornbeam or birch twigs. Lime bark cables and wooden pins made of hornbeam, birch or young beech served the same purpose. Raftsmen used special poles to push the wood piled on the beach into the water. Technical terms connected with rafting include very old Dacian words such as *butuc* (stump), *copac* (tree), mediaeval Greek terms such as *catarg* (mast), *galion* (galley), *trinchet* (prow mast); Turkish terms — *cherestea* (sawn timber), *dulap* (deal) *raele* (crowbars), *manele* (poles), *taftaluc* (board bundle); and naturally a great many Romanian terms: *ciocîrlie* (a kind of bast rope), *căpății* (single raft), *chingă* (strap), *cui* (nail), *grind* (levee), *gînj* (bast rope), *tablă* (single raft), *sul* (train of rafts), etc.

In ancient times, a single raft was floated on the upper reaches of the streams; later two or three were joined together, and in the plain, where there were no rapids, even a greater number of them. Usually, four rafts tied together floated down the Siret. On the Mureș several rafts tied together were called *tar*.

When the flow of the river was too low, dams were made behind in which water was stored. The term for those primitive barrages was *hait* in Moldavia and *dugaș* in Transylvania<sup>24</sup>. When the dam was opened, the timber went down the river at great speed and the colour of the water changed for it was no longer clear water. The rafts were guided by raftsmen — stalwart, proficient men inured to perils. There were difficult, dangerous spots on the Bistrița — the famous Toance, among others — where skill and courage were required. Towards the end of the 19th century the number of raftsmen was estimated at about 2,000 in Suceava county and about 3,000 in Neamț county. Raftsmen were recruited in mountain villages such as Hangu, Bicaz, Broșteni, Buhalnița, Pingărați, Galu, Tarcău, Doamna, etc.<sup>25</sup> A raft had a helmsman, who steered it, and a young man who assisted the steersman (*dălcăuș*). There was moreover a man (*dragoman*) who gave the raft in charge on its departure, and another who took charge of it at destination. There was specializa-

<sup>22</sup> Vlăduțiu, *op. cit.*, p. 268.

<sup>23</sup> Mihail Anania, *Description of the Tarcău Forest and Rafting on the Bistrița*, Bucharest, 1900, p. 27; Arvinte, *Terminology*.

<sup>24</sup> Vlăduțiu, *op. cit.*, p. 303, 305.

<sup>25</sup> D. G. Ionescu, *op. cit.*, p. 212.

tion in the trade: teams of binders made it their business to bind the rafts together<sup>26</sup>. And there were also raftsmen's paths by way of which the raftsmen who had given the rafts in charge at destination returned home taking short cuts over the hills without following the winding banks of the river. Raftsmen had their own signs which they notched on the logs making up the rafts so as to recognise them and in certain cases to mark them as their own<sup>27</sup>.

With the introduction of the new techniques, rafting gradually went out of the picture. When the Bicaz hydropower station was built, the rafts could only go as far as the storage lake and no longer down the Bistrița and the Siret. The same applies to the Lotru and to the Olt, where the numerous hydropower stations have put an end to rafting. At the same time, modern means of transport — forest trains and motor lorries — reach the remotest places. Timber transport has thus grown more expensive, but in exchange the quality of timber is better preserved.

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<sup>26</sup> Vlăduțiu, *op. cit.*, p. 305.

<sup>27</sup> Theodor T. Burada, *On Rafters' Notches on Timber and Other Ownership Marks with the Romanians*. Iași, 1880, p. 15—16.

## FOREST PRODUCTS

*Frequent occurrence of trees and shrubs bearing edible fruit is typical of Romanian forests*

Apart from timber — the essential product — forests also yield wild strawberries, raspberries, blackberries, bilberries, mountain currants, cornels, sloes, hips, wild apples, wild pears, walnuts, hazel nuts and chestnuts, resin and tinder fungus. In the past acorns and beech mast were greatly prized as they served to fatten swine; moreover, edible oil was extracted from beech-nuts<sup>1</sup>. In times of famine acorns were also eaten by the population after having been ground and mixed with flour; sometimes elm bark was also ground<sup>2</sup> and even reeds<sup>3</sup>, not to mention beech-nuts, the kernel of which was used to make tasty food. Nowadays acorn flour mixed with cocoa is a drug prescribed for digestive troubles in children. Walnuts and hazel nuts have always been sought after and still are, and the same may be said of mushrooms. Strawberries, raspberries, blackberries, bilberries, cornels, and the other forest fruit had no great commercial value, as they were not exported.

Acorns and beechmast are mentioned in early mediaeval documents. In Transylvania, oak and beech forests are referred to in documents as mast brought in a considerable income. On the Ardud estate in Crișana there were extensive forests in 1566 where swine were fattened, being brought over also from the Carei borough and from elsewhere. Out of 10 swine fattened on mast one was given to the owner of the forest and if they were kept only for pasturing, one pig was given out of every herd. The accounts of the estate for the year 1588 show that 5,427 swine had been brought to the forests from 42 villages, 200 swine being given in payment of the tax. There

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<sup>1</sup> In France also fine edible oil was made out of beech-nuts (Deffontaines, *L'Homme et la forêt*, p. 62).

<sup>2</sup> Andreas Wolf, *Beiträge zu einer statistisch-historischen Beschreibung des Fürstenthums Moldau*, I, Sibiu, 1805, p. 129—130.

<sup>3</sup> It occurred at the time of Prince Ștefăniță Lupu (1656—1661), who for this reason was nicknamed "The Reed Prince".



were also extensive forests (*immanes sylvae*) round the borough of Belting; they extended as far as Cehu, which was also in Crișana. A document dating from 1566 points out that they were preserve forests, especially for swine rather than for timber. The tithe on the fattened swine amounted to 1,000—1,500 head annually<sup>4</sup>. On 13 March 1583, Stephen Báthori, King of Poland and Prince of Transylvania warned the judge and the governor of Făgăraș not to send herds of swine to the Transylvanian Saxons' forests where they had caused damage<sup>5</sup>. At the beginning of the 17th century, Efrem, Bishop of Rădăuți, wrote to the Bistrița people: "Since God our Lord has bestowed beechmast ... and acorns, we would graciously ask your permission to send any swine we have to be fattened. And you will take<sup>6</sup> whatever will be due to you". So herds of swine were being sent from Moldavia to the forests of Transylvania to be fattened, payment being made, according to the old custom, to the owners of the forests. Yet, the custom varied. Thus, in the Făgăraș Land in 1508, a pail of oats and a measure of wine were given for a herd of 50 swine. Later, however, around 1560—1570, a pig was levied for every herd, and 2 dinars for every pig in the herd<sup>7</sup>. Before 1634, that proficient organizer Prince George Rákoczy I (1630—1648) instructed the bailiff of the Făgăraș estate as follows: "when there is a good crop of acorns, let it be known everywhere, that as many pigs as possible should be drawn thither." Moreover, the bailiff should buy swine and fatten them<sup>8</sup>. In the survey reports of the Făgăraș Land dating from the 17th century, oak and beech forests are entered for every village, but their area is not given; it is only stated how many swine could be fattened in those forests. Thus: at Grid, oak forests, 1000 swine; at Perșani, a good forest of fir, oak, beech and other varieties suitable for any kind of work, there is building timber, 1000 swine; at Vad, a good oak forest with building timber, when acorns are plentiful, 1000 swine; at Holvbav, beech forest, 600 swine; at Poiana Mărului 1000; at Ohaba, 4000; at Șercăița, 600—700. Altogether, about 25,000 swine could be fattened. Nevertheless, a great many herds of swine came to the Wallachian forests from Transylvania. The address of the Transylvanian government in Cluj to the Vienna Emperor on 11 October 1727 stated that in Wallachia, oak forests and also wild apple- and

<sup>4</sup> Prodan, *Serfdom*, vol. I, p. 278; see also vol. II, p. 37, 279, 284.

<sup>5</sup> Hurmuzaki—Iorga, *Documents*, XV, 1, p. 692.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibidem*, 2, p. 842.

<sup>7</sup> Prodan, *op. cit.*, I, p. 276.

<sup>8</sup> *Urbarium*, I, p. 8, 51.

pear-trees, yielded fruit continuously. Thanks to the bountiful sun and the heat, only one year was fruitless out of seven or eight, while in Transylvania, on the contrary, they hardly yielded fruit one year out of seven or eight. For which reason pigs were brought over from Wallachia. We would add that this was the reason why herds of swine were sent from Transylvania to be fattened in the forests of Oltenia and Wallachia. In the Regulation of 1786 for the forests of Bucovina we find the following recommendations regarding the preservation of acorns and beech nuts for sowing purposes: after good acorns and beech nuts have been picked and dried in the wind, they are laid in a pit in alternating layers with sand. In the spring, the seed looks "so fresh and sound that it might have been picked from the trees right then."<sup>9</sup>

Our readers may wonder why we have listed walnut trees among forest trees. The answer is that walnut trees grow naturally over the Carpatho-Danubian territory, as hazel trees do and, in certain regions, also chestnut-trees yielding edible chestnuts. In Vilcea, Dimbovița and Prahova, walnut groves are mentioned in very ancient documents<sup>10</sup>. Thus the walnut grove in Vilcea had given its name — Nucet—to the monastery as shown in a document dating from about 1400; the name was later changed to Cozia so that there should be no confusion with the Nucet in Dimbovița county. Walnuts were an export article: in the 18th century and the early 19th century, merchants took them to Kiev, Kharkov and Nejin in the Ukraina and even to Russia, as far as Moscow<sup>11</sup>. The customs tariff of 28 June 1732 shows that walnuts were also exported to Austria<sup>12</sup>.

Unfortunately, walnut trees as fruit-trees have a great enemy: the remarkable quality of their timber, which makes excellent material for furniture, veneer, rifle butts, etc. For this reason narrow-minded people — who think of their immediate interests alone and are unaware of the fact that they do away with a source of income that might bring in long-term profits — cut walnut trees in numbers. We do not refer to the wartime fellings ordered by occupation armies, but to peace time fellings which have no justification. As there were no serious sanctions, penalties for the felling and degradation of trees being merely symbolic, "in recent years the annual walnut felling rate has exceeded the plantation rate," as an author well versed in the problem concludes. Consequently, we wholeheartedly

<sup>9</sup> *Forest Regulations*, p. 21—22.

<sup>10</sup> *D.R.H.*, B, vol. I, 48—49.

<sup>11</sup> Const. C. Giurescu, *Economic Relations between Romanians and Russians before the Règlement Organique*, Bucharest, 1947, p. 31 and 43.

<sup>12</sup> Constantin Giurescu, *Oltenia*, p. 526.

greet the law on fruit growing which has been passed by the Grand National Assembly and which puts an end to situations of this kind.

Everywhere in our country, from Oltenia to Maramureş and from Dobrudja to Crişana, hazel trees grow naturally. Among the obligations of the Transylvanian serfs was the picking of hazelnuts for the owner of the estate they lived on<sup>13</sup>. In Banat and in north-western Oltenia, Turkish filberts grow naturally, alongside the native hazel-bush. Turkish hazelnuts are bigger, round and more oily<sup>14</sup>.

Edible chestnuts are found in two regions where the climate is milder : in north-western Oltenia around Tismana Monastery and along the river by the same name, and in the Baia Mare region (Maramureş county). In the latter region, about 270 ha of chestnut trees yielded edible chestnuts in 1971. The village of Tăuţii de Sus shelter the oldest sweet chestnut tree in Romania, 3.40 metres in diameter and aged at least 500 years<sup>15</sup>.

Wild fruit-tress — apple-, pear-, morello-, and cherrytrees — grow in great number in Romanias' forests, and so do cornelian cherries and service trees. Travelling along the Dobrudjan Danube, from Măcin upwards, some time between 1830 and 1840, monk Partenie points to the frequent occurrence of wild fruit-trees, stating : "More than half of the forest trees are fruit-trees : pear-, apple-, morello-, cherry- and various walnut-trees, as well as cornelian cherries and wild vine."<sup>16</sup> Lovers of nature are wont to graft such wild fruit-trees in the forest. On 1 November 1840, on the Miclăuşani estate (Roman county) belonging to Court Marshal Alexandru Sturdza, it was decided that all the inhabitants of the estate should be obliged to arrange gardens where two hundred young fruit-trees of the wild type — cherry-, pear- and apple-trees — should be planted. Each forester guard and bee-keeper was to bring 500 pear and apple-tree saplings, which were to be put into the earth in the "experimental orchard, to be grafted." The grafting material was to be brought from Deleni and Horodniceni<sup>17</sup>. The fruit of the cornelian cherry and of the service tree were picked in late autumn and were greatly appreciated by our forebears.

Nowadays raspberries, wild strawberries, blackberries, bilberries, mountain currants, sloes and recently also *Hippophae rhamnoides*, are being exported, either fresh or in the form of pulp, jam

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<sup>13</sup> *Urbaria*, p. 98.

<sup>14</sup> Haralamb, *Cultivation*, p. 276—283.

<sup>15</sup> "Revista Pădurilor," 1962, 1, p. 49—50.

<sup>16</sup> *From the Journeys of the Russian Monk and Priest Partenie...* translated from the Russian by V. Puiu, Vălenii de Munte, 1916, p. 42.

<sup>17</sup> Platon, *The Feudal Estate*, p. 118—119.



and syrup. Forest fruits are assuming increasing economic importance. The same might be said about forest mushrooms: edible boletus (*Boletus edulis*), which are dried and eaten with relish, yellow boletus, the purple beech mushrooms, which are pickled for the winter, *Armillaria mellea*, *Morchella*, honey agaric, and many other species of mushrooms, are a valuable addition to the fare of people familiar with this source of wealth of our forests of such great variety and excellence. Mushrooms are in growing demand for export. Out of bilberries fine brandy is made, and similar distillates can also be obtained from other forest fruit such as raspberries and blackberries.

At the time when matches were not being manufactured, tinder fungus was a forest product in great demand. It was by means of tinder, flint and flint steel that the fire was lighted, so that no house could do without it. Tinder fungus was cut from the beech where it grew as a parasite plant, was boiled and subsequently dried to downy.

Resin, a pleasant smelling secretion of coniferous trees, has always been in demand. In Transylvania, in the 16th century, the serf villages had to give the landowner acorns, fir resin, fish and deer or instead of deer, chickens and money, apart from what each serf gave the landowner individually wheat, oats, cabbage, and trout<sup>18</sup>. Resiners around the town of Sibiu were famous for collecting and selling resin. The Regulation for Bucovina's forests states the following: "Let the resin concoctions be made in spruce forests... as the stumps left and the brushwood may be used for the purpose." If whole trees were used, a dozen resin concoction kilns would not be sufficient to bring in the profit equivalent to the damage done to the forest by a single kiln<sup>19</sup>. A document dated 8 August 1816 proves that fir trees were tapped for resin also in the rest of Moldavia. The Arch-priest Dumitrache of Piatra Neamț writes to Isaia, Archimandrite at the Metropolitan See of Iași: "There has been a princely order to collect resin and snails, and the priests and deacons did not obey the order... and I went round to their homes and with much argument and trouble, I could hardly collect 130 ocaș [185 kg] of resin. And no snail whatever."<sup>20</sup> Resin was kept in fir cornet bags and was used to smoke the houses in order to purify the air. Today it is processed on an industrial scale at Miercurea-Ciuc being combined with colophony and turpentine.

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<sup>18</sup> Prodan, *Serfdom*, p. 18.

<sup>19</sup> *Forest Regulation*, p. 32.

<sup>20</sup> D. Furtună, *An Old Custom, in the Neamț County: The Snail Tax*, in *Rareș Yearbook*, p. 63.

We should also mention the fruit of the vine which occurs sporadically throughout the country in river meadows and in deciduous forests up to 400 metres altitude at most <sup>21</sup>. Edible wild grapes were especially found on the lower reaches of the Mureş <sup>22</sup>.

Before sugar was made on an industrial scale out of sugar beet, cane sugar was consumed, though this was an expensive product inaccessible to villagers, and also honey, consumed from the very earliest times and found in great abundance in the country. More seldom sugar made from the sap of the common maple was consumed. In early spring, small holes were made in the maple trunks and sweet sap was collected in pails, was boiled until it thickened, and a syrup was obtained which could replace sugar and honey. In 1812 a brochure was printed at Buda, in Romanian, in order to spread knowledge of the procedure. It was a translation from the German and was headed "how to make sugar out of maple sap." <sup>23</sup> The procedure was known also in other European and non-European countries, in Canada and in the United States. The method is still being used in the north-western states (Rhode Island and Maine), though to a smaller extent. Red Indians named March the maple month, for it was then that maple sap was tapped <sup>24</sup>. As is known, there is a maple leaf on the Canadian flag.

Oak nuts are spongy protuberances which occur on oak leaves as following an insect's prick. They were used as a tanning substance when hides and skins were tanned, and also in cosmetics. Other tanning substances were the alder fruit and the bark of young oaks, especially of Turkey oaks <sup>25</sup>.

The leaves of the wild apple-tree mixed with withered marjoram leaves and left to macerate in water, yield a beautiful light red colour used in the countryside to dye wool, while the Armenians used it in dyeing cordwain <sup>26</sup>. Birch bark makes a brown colour, alder bark and birch leaves a black colour, while the peel of wild apples and of *Parietaria erecta* leaves treated with alum give a yellow colour. Out of young fir branches toilet water is prepared with a fine fir scent. Finally, we must mention the mistletoe, that semi-parasite with small white berries which is related to New Year's Eve traditions.

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<sup>21</sup> Dumitru-Tătăranu et al., *Forest Trees*, p. 757.

<sup>22</sup> Bielz, *op. cit.*, p. 93.

<sup>23</sup> *Old Romanian Bibliography*, vol. III; Bielz, *op. cit.*, p. 88.

<sup>24</sup> Deffontaines, *op. cit.*, p. 54.

<sup>25</sup> *Notice*, p. 81.

<sup>26</sup> Bielz, *op. cit.*, p. 89, 90.

## GAME IN ROMANIA'S FORESTS

*"The forest is both home and food for game."*  
(Old Romanian saying)

Most of Romania's game, whether furred or winged, lives and feeds in forests. Bears, wild boars, wolves, red and fallow deer, roes, martens, lynxes, and also wood grouse, black grouse or hazel grouse cannot be thought of apart from forests. In winter even the small game of the plain takes shelter in the forest.

As the forest area was much more extensive in Romania's territory in prehistoric times as well as in ancient times and during the Middle Ages, we can easily imagine the abundance of game there. Information preserved from very early times as well as from later periods — the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries — substantiates our statement and enables us to draw conclusions to the same effect. Excavations at Sucidava revealed a great amount of antlers and boar bones, in several strata<sup>1</sup>. In a document of 1138 issued by King Béla II to Dumis Monastery (Hungarian P.R.), it is stated that the inhabitants of Transylvania will have to give annually to the Monastery "20 martens..., the hide of a bear and an aurochs' horn."<sup>2</sup> In 1208, urus hunters of the Ip village (Sălaj county) are recorded<sup>3</sup>. On 12 August 1299 King Andrew III confirmed the exemption granted by King Béla IV to the *hospites* resident at Cața (Brașov county) who "had been pardoned and exempted from the obligation to give marten skins for the use of the queens, having from the very beginning of their settlement been granted by royal bounty a special privilege and the name of Jderi [martens] village."<sup>4</sup> The Diploma of 1222 whereby King Andrew II confirms to the noblemen of the kingdom of Hungary their rights, stated that "The taxes paid in marten skins shall be paid in accordance with the custom established

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<sup>1</sup> Tudor, *Roman Ollenia*, p. 204.

<sup>2</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 11th, 12th, 13th centuries, vol. I, p. 3.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 421.

<sup>4</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 13th century, vol. II, p. 468.



by King Coloman." In 1231 the same King Andrew specified that instead of marten skins "four groschen should be paid and out of all incomes collected thereby, one third shall be paid to the landowner and two thirds to the ruler of the country."<sup>5</sup>

We may conclude to the importance of the forest game also from a document whereby the descendants of Count Nicholas of Rodna and the descendants of Count Benedict divide an estate in 1292. Gold and silver mines in Rodna were to be divided into two parts, as were also "the game in the mountains, the fisheries, the result of the traps set for the wild beasts and any other profit derived from forests."<sup>6</sup> The Chronicle of Wallachia, written by Radu Popescu, tells the following about Prince Vlad Vintilă of Slatina (1532—1535): "After three years of rule, he went to Craiova to hunt in the forests along the river Jiu and to catch deer and other big game for in those parts there was such big game."<sup>7</sup> But the hunting party proved disastrous for the prince, as some of the boyars got wind of his intention to do away with them as enemies and forestalled him. One of the boyars, Chancellor Momce, instructed two servants of his how to proceed and they pierced the prince with their spears as they galloped past him. On June 12 1535, the incident was already known in Braşov<sup>8</sup>.

In 1632, Paul Strassburg, envoy of the King of Sweden, crossed Wallachia on his way to Constantinople and jotted down in his travel diary: "There are wild beasts and birds in great numbers in the woods and forests." A century and a half later, during the war of 1768—1774, General de Bawr pointed out that "the forests and the mountains teem with roebucks, deer [*bouquetains*], wild boars and, in the plains especially, with hares. The beasts of prey are here foxes, bears, wolves, lynxes, etc. There is also a special variety of wolves of the plain, which are smaller than mountain ones. These wolves of the plain are to be found especially in the Danube meadows, where they hide in the reeds of the lakes and in the marshes. They roam in great numbers, are carnivorous and cause great damage to the sheepfolds. In the forests I noticed an attractive variety of wild pigeon and a species of black magpie with red head, the size of a chicken; it is delicious meat, but the bird knows all the tricks of the hunter and can be shot only with great difficulty."<sup>9</sup>

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<sup>5</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 11th, 12th and 13th centuries, vol. I, p. 192, 250.

<sup>6</sup> *D.I.R.*, C, 13th century, vol. II, p. 382—383.

<sup>7</sup> Popescu, *Histoires*, p. 45.

<sup>8</sup> Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, II, p. 165.

<sup>9</sup> *Mémoires*, p. 14.

It may be interesting to note that historical sources mention domesticated stags. Baltazar Walter, a contemporary of Michael the Brave who wrote a chronicle of his reign, tells of two such stags "which accompanied Michael in several war expeditions; they would mostly lie beside the tent of the Prince, and were present during the battles, bounding bravely before or alongside the Prince; neither the bombards nor the thundering cannons frightened them, but hearing the din, they would stand on their hind legs and look for a while; contrary to the habits of such animals, they stood like motionless witnesses at the battle of Călugăreni; but as one of them happened to die then, the other went to hide in the forest in its grief." Supposing that some of his readers would not believe his account, Baltazar Walter adds that "this is confirmed by Duke Michael himself and by several reliable army people".<sup>10</sup> Prince Mavrogheni (1786—1790) harnessed tame stags to a light carriage he himself drove. Paul Pitrisch, a contemporaneous painter, drew a coloured print of the scene<sup>11</sup>. In winter time, the stags were harnessed to the Prince's sledge. In a description of a pageant of the year 1787 mention is made of "the princely carriage drawn by six steeds" and "the princely sledge drawn by stags."<sup>12</sup>

Information about Moldavia is provided by the French traveller De Fourquevaux. In 1585, passing through Moldavia between the Prut and the Dniester, he wrote that forests offered most pleasant night hunting of wild boars and bears, which they lay in wait for high up in the trees with arquebuses<sup>13</sup>. A Swede, H. Weismantell, traversing Moldavia at the beginning of the 18th century, states: "In all the country there is an unheard of abundance of every kind of wild beasts; elks, stags, roebucks, bears and wild boars go about the country like flocks of sheep; there are, moreover, very many bustards, partridges, grouse, wigeons, grey geese, snipes and other birds, but people do not shoot or catch them too often; if they wanted to, the people of the country might feed only on game. For even the poorest peasant can hunt like the Prince himself and catch game at any time and anywhere. A roedeer is bought for 6 or 8 imperial groschen and the other game also at very low prices."<sup>14</sup> The traveller is wrong as concerns the people's right to hunt at any time and any-

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<sup>10</sup> Al. Paplu-Ilarian, *Thesaurus of Historical Monuments*, I, Bucharest, 1862, p. 30—31.

<sup>11</sup> Giurescu, *History of Bucharest*, plate between pages 112 and 113.

<sup>12</sup> Urechla, *History of the Romanians*, III, p. 506.

<sup>13</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, II, p. 181.

<sup>14</sup> Iorga, *A New Description of Moldavia in the 18th Century by a Swede*, in "Revista Istorică," XVI (1930), p. 26.

where<sup>15</sup>; but his statement about the abundance of game, both furred and winged, is confirmed by many other sources. Thus, in *Descriptio Moldaviae*<sup>16</sup>, Dimitrie Cantemir tells of the "flocks of stags, roedeer and chamois", of "packs of wolves wandering about in forests," not to speak of "the other wild animals teeming in our forests: lynxes, martens and foxes whose fur serves especially to protect us from the cold." Cantemir also gives a detailed description of the *Bison europaeus*: "In size it is as big as a domestic ox, but its head is smaller and elongated, its neck is slenderer and its belly less protuberant; its legs are longer, thinner and more upright, with very pointed hoofs turned outwards. It is a ferocious and swift animal which, like chamois, can climb up mountain crags; for this reason it is difficult to catch it except when it is killed or wounded by gun fire." It is the head of this animal that Dragoș, the first ruling Prince of Moldavia, decided to put on the arms of the state he founded<sup>17</sup>. Cantemir's detailed and accurate description proves that he had seen the beast while hunting or at least as shot game. Cantemir proves to be a keen observer as a hunter (both his father, Prince Constantin, and especially his brother, Prince Antioh, had been great hunters), when he describes the *Tetrastes bonasia*: "In Moldavia and along the boundary of Pocuția, there is a bird which the local people call *ieruncă* and the Poles *glushka*, which means deaf. It looks like a wood hen, but it is smaller and stupid and deaf. If a hunter were to find a hundred such birds in a tree, he could shoot them one by one, and the other birds would just look at their fellow bird rolling to the ground. Their meat is very fine and very white, excelling in taste partridge and pheasant."<sup>18</sup>

Two other wild beasts are mentioned in *Descriptio Moldaviae*: the wild buffalo and the wild sheep. The former is said to live on both banks of the Dniester and is supposed to come from Podolia and the Tartar country, as the herds of wild buffaloes are compelled "to cross the frozen Dniester by the northern winds that play havoc in those regions during the winter."<sup>19</sup> Cantemir's description of the "wild sheep" is surprising: "They have an upper lip that hangs down the length of two palms for which reason they are forced to seek their food when grazing by leaning backwards. Their neck is very short, without any joints, and consequently they cannot turn their head to the right or to the left; they have very short legs,

<sup>15</sup> See chapter on *Preserve Land*.

<sup>16</sup> *Descriptio Moldaviae*, p. 114—117.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 116—117.

<sup>18</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 118—119.

<sup>19</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 116—117.



indeed, but are very swift so that chasing dogs find it difficult to catch up with them; furthermore, their sense of smell is so keen that they can sense the hunters or an animal coming from the direction the wind blows at a German mile's distance [some 7.6 km] and can get away running hard. But, if they are approached when the wind blows another way, they cannot scent anything except at the moment they are caught."<sup>20</sup>

According to Antonio Bonfini (1434–1503), Transylvania was a country "incredibly rich in bison, wild beasts and bears."<sup>21</sup> Half-way through the 16th century, Sebastian Münster writes that "in the forests there are bison with a mane, and aurochs and also wild horses of amazing swiftness, and the horses have manes that reach down to the ground."<sup>22</sup> Describing the various regions of Transylvania, Antonio Possevino (1533–1611) states that Orăştia has "fertile plains... forests rich in hares, wild boars, roedeer and stags."<sup>23</sup> The traveller David Frölich, who wrote his account between 1629 and 1639, gives more details about Transylvanian game. After explaining the name of the country by the "multitude of forests" and pointing out that "it is only through such forests that one can get into Transylvania and come out of it," whence the Hungarian name Erdely (wooded place), he continues: "The forests are full of game of every description. Wild horses are to be found with manes reaching down to the ground, and also stags, roedeer, foxes, and very big hares whose skins are used for women's apparel. The wolves and bears in the 'Upper Country' and in the Old Land sometimes gather in packs of 30–40 and tear to pieces a number of horses almost every winternight. In the 'Upper Country' handsome profits are made, for the head of a family can get three to four hundred florins a year by selling hides, a sum which the vine grower in the neighbouring region could hardly get by working in his vineyard."<sup>24</sup>

Some varieties of game have not been preserved to our days. Having been hunted mercilessly, some are extinct, others are very near extinction. *Bos primigenius* and *Bison europaeus* are both extinct, though they were once the pride of our forests; the aurochs died out in the 15th or the 16th century, while the last bison was shot in Maramureş, in 1852<sup>25</sup>. Our forebears greatly prized the aurochs,

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<sup>20</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 114–115.

<sup>21</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, I, p. 489.

<sup>22</sup> *Ibidem*, I, p. 505.

<sup>23</sup> *Ibidem*, II, p. 548.

<sup>24</sup> *Ibidem*, V, p. 47.

<sup>25</sup> A. B. Szalay, *The Aurochs in Transylvania, Monograph of the primeval Ox of Romania*, in "Carpați," V (1937), 12, p. 351.

which was royal chase, and its head was chosen to adorn Moldavia's arms. After 1958, a number of bison were brought over from Poland for the nature reserve in the Slivuț forest in Hațeg, where they have got well acclimatized. Some specimens have been removed to Argeș and Neamț counties and to Poiana Brașov. *Castor fiber* is almost extinct in Romania. Its memory is preserved in a number of place names such as the Brebu villages in Prahova, Dîmbovița, Buzău, Caraș-Severin and Timiș counties and also in Maramureș (the Maramureș village was mentioned at the time of Bogdan, the founder of Moldavia). There is, moreover, a Brebu Valley. A number of Brebu villages were recorded in Moldavia: one in Vaslui county, mentioned at the time of Alexander the Good, another in Neamț county, recorded at the time of Stephen the Great. Furthermore, a village named Brebi is to be found in Cluj county<sup>26</sup>.

In our forests there no longer live the primeval elk (*plotun*) or the wild horse, which the Russians named *tarpan*, nor any wild ass (*colun*).<sup>27</sup> All that is left are a few place names such as: Colun, a glade in Dolj county; Coluni, a place in Buzău county; Colun, a village in Sibiu county; the villages named Coloneața in Iași and Vaslui counties, and Colunița in Buzău county. Opinions are divided as regards the Alpine marmot: a number of researchers think that it died out at the close of the last century<sup>28</sup>, while others contend that this rodent ever lived in our territory<sup>29</sup>. The question cannot be cleared before fresh documentary material has been found. Marmots have recently been colonised in the Făgăraș and Retezat mountains and also in Maramureș, and seem to have well acclimatized everywhere.

Very near extinction is the *Gypaetus barbatus*, "Zăgan," the biggest variety of vulture on our territory, whose name has been preserved in Mount Zăgan close to Cheia, in Prahova county. The same holds good for *Lyrurus tetrix*, the black grouse, a splendid bird which in former times was currently found in hill and plain forests and which has very nearly died out now.

In the early 19th century *Hucho hucho*, the biggest salmonoid in our country, could be found in all the more important mountain

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<sup>26</sup> Const. C. Giurescu, *In Connection with the History of the Romanians*, in "Rev. Ist. Rom.," V—VI (1935—1936), p. 126.

<sup>27</sup> Al. Filipașcu, *Wild Animals from the Time of our Forebears*, Bucharest, 1969, p. 131—141.

<sup>28</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 210—212.

<sup>29</sup> C. Rosetti-Bălănescu, *On the Non-existence of Marmots in the Romanian Carpathians*, in "Ocotirea Naturii," 17 (1973), 2, p. 211—215.

streams<sup>30</sup>; today, it has only been preserved in the upper reaches of the Bistrița and in the Vișeuul maramureșean. This species has been reintroduced in the rivers Someșul Mic and Crișul Repede and has been acclimatized in the Argeș and Bicăz storage lakes up in the mountain districts.

The *mouflon*, a variety of wild sheep with thick, twisted horns, a native of Sardinia and Corsica, has in recent times been colonized in Southern Dobruja and in Buzău and Alba counties. Totalling up the newly introduced or re-introduced species and those that have died out in the course of time, the result shows a deficit, for we have lost more than we have gained. It is consequently our duty to most carefully preserve the existing species of game, to protect them and to add new species so that we might keep the reputation of a fish and game country which the Carpatho-Danubian area had enjoyed from time immemorial.

Who was entitled to hunt in the Romanian countries? Were there any prohibitions and how far did those prohibitions go? The answer is plain: all those who owned land were entitled to hunt: the ruling prince, the high officials, the boyars, big and small, the representatives of the monasteries, the freeholders, and also the townspeople within the boundary of the town.<sup>31</sup> Serfs could only hunt with the permission of the landowner who levied a tithe for the game. At first, when spears and bows, gins and traps were the only means used in hunting<sup>32</sup>, peasants could easily escape this obligation as they were not betrayed by the sound of shots, and small game, whether furred or winged, could easily be hidden under one's coat. And there was such an abundance of game that what the peasants hunted or caught did not make much difference.

In Transylvania, however, Hungarian noblemen took steps in order to prohibit hunting by the peasants. In 1504, article 18 of the decree issued by King Ladislaus II provided that thenceforth none of the settlers and peasants "should dare in any way and by any means hunt deer, hares and wild boars, or pheasants and wood cocks, but each should trouble to till the land, hayfields and vineyards and practise other handicrafts"; whoever would not submit, was to pay three florins, which were to be taken by the master of the settler who had hunted or has caught birds, or by the owner of the land where the settler was found doing so. And if the two neglec-

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<sup>30</sup> Dionisie Fotino, *Dacia*, p. 161—162.

<sup>31</sup> Giurescu, *Boroughs*, p. 139—141.

<sup>32</sup> Concerning such gins and traps, see Vlăduțiu, *Romanian Ethnography*, p. 309—311.



ted taking the fine, or did not wish to take it out of partiality for the settler, then the vice-count or the judge among the noblemen of that county where the misdeed had occurred, was to get it from the nobleman or the landowner who had spared the settler<sup>33</sup>. Consequently, the decree made punishment compulsory and admitted of no pardon.

The provisions of 1504 did not, however, amount to prohibition of all kinds of hunting. Serfs could hunt martens, whose fur was valuable and also foxes, wolves and lynxes, and they could also catch hawks. The village of Vinători (Hunters) on the Gyula estate had hunting among its duties, as its name implies and the village of Doboz was under obligation to catch wild ducks. In 1539, the Voivode of Marin had to give a roedeer and the 'Cneji' on the Cicei estate a fallow deer and a hawk. According to the estate survey of 1554, the Romanians of Idicel and of other villages used to give a fallow deer at Christmas. The judges on the Chioaru estate gave hawks and roes, and the villages of Maramureş marten skins. To begin with, the skins of animals hunted by the peasants could be sold freely. In 1560, however, the Turda Diet laid down that one florin should be paid for three fox skins sold by settlers to the noblemen. When Prince George Rákoczy began to rule his domain in Făgăraş, he laid down the following: "No skin of wild animals should come into the hands of traders; nobody is allowed to sell them anywhere and to anyone, under a 12 florins' penalty, but must bring them to the bailiff for the due price. The latter shall pay 80 dinars for a fox skin; if it is big and beautiful 90 dinars; for a fine marten, 50 dinars; for a fine wolf skin, 2 florins. Lynx skins tell their own price. But, the bailiff should see to the beautiful collection of the skins the subjects owe annually."<sup>34</sup> In 1632 there were at Făgăraş 69 tanned fox skins and the antlers of 18 stags which came from the obligations of the serfs, plus those that had been sold by serfs. In 1637 were recorded "three big bear hides and two smaller ones, 65 dressed fox skins, 7 dressed chamois skins, 26 buckskins and 32 doeskins".

No hunting or fishing was admitted in the game reserve, except with the express permission of the owner. As there was no written law, the "law of the preserve" was observed.

Dimitrie Cantemir supplies a number of details concerning the princely hunts in Moldavia. There were usually four hunts a year prior to "the four periods of fasting of the Eastern Church" (the Advent, Lent, the fasting before Saint Peter's Day and the fasting before

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<sup>33</sup> Prodan, *Serfdom*, I, p. 101—102, 362—363.

<sup>34</sup> *Urbaria*, I, p. 8, 99.

Assumption). Cantemir points out that "the inhabitants of the country of every condition were obliged to take part in the hunts, whether they be officials, soldiers, boyars, townspeople or merchants." The beaters were several thousand peasants pressed from the neighbouring villages, who were ordered "to get into the forests and start the beasts." "In the fields around the forests, the hunters stand in circle, some with hounds, others laying snares, and they easily catch the game which had been frightened by the peasants' shouting. In order to give an incentive to the hunters, the Prince has decided that a gift shall be given for every wild animal: whoever catches a hare receives a "bakshish" [Türkish term for tip] of twenty-five aspers; whoever catches a fox, receives sixty aspers; the reward for a wild boar is an imperial thaler, for a bear it is a ducat, and for a hind, eight aspers. At the end of the hunt, the animals which can be eaten, are taken to the Prince's kitchen, and some of them are distributed among the great dignitaries and the heads of the army; unclean animals: foxes, wolves, bears, wild cats, wild dogs [*hylaces*], and other animals of the kind living in Moldavia's mountains, are ceded to the Prince's soldiers and servants who make a profit, by no means insignificant, from their furs."

In 1656 Clas Rälamb, Ambassador of the King of Sweden, took part in a banquet offered by the ruling Prince of Wallachia, Constantin Șerban Basarab, the Snubnosed. He relates that "two big bears were brought in front of the pavilion; the bears had been killed by the Prince's hunters and the Prince himself rewarded them with a handful of aspers."<sup>35</sup>

Naturally, the prince could organize other hunts of smaller proportions and with fewer beaters, over and above the four annual hunts. Hunting was one of the favourite pastimes of the leading sections of the population, with traditional rules, special officials, trained dogs and hawks. Such a hunt, in the plain and not in the forest, is spoken of at the time of Prince Alexandru Lăpușneanu (1552—1561 and 1563—1568) who said in a disdainful jibe aimed at his opponent, Despot, and his followers: "When we go out into the fields to hunt the hare, there are more and better armed soldiers to follow us than all their army".<sup>36</sup> Franco Sivori, the Italian secretary to Wallachia's Prince Petru Cercel (1583—1585) tells of a "general" hunt of the Prince which he attended and during which "some 270 hares had been caught as well as ten to twelve wolves and 60 foxes,

<sup>35</sup> C. I. Karadja, *A Swedish Ambassador to the Court of Constantin Șerban*, in "Rev. Ist.," VI (1920), p. 211.

<sup>36</sup> Valeria Costăchel, P. P. Panaitescu and A. Cazacu, *Feudal Life in Walachia and Moldavia, 14th—17th Centuries*, Bucharest, 1967, p. 26.

a forest two or three miles in circumference being fenced in for the purpose."<sup>37</sup>

Special mention should be made of hawking : the hawks were held on the hunters' fist covered with a thick glove ; as soon as they saw the game, whether quail, partridge or even hare, they pounced on it and struck it with their beak until it was killed or wounded. Such hunting was initially practised in Asia, but it soon spread throughout Europe. The Turkish Sultan was very fond of hawking so that as part of our special relations with the Porte, there was also the obligation of sending a certain number of hawks to Constantinople every year. A Polish note from 1532 points out that the Moldavian prince was sending to the Sultan 16 hawks every year<sup>38</sup> ; Dimitrie Cantemir gives the figure of 24<sup>39</sup> ; an order issued by Prince Mihai Sutu on 7/18 May 1792 to the bailiffs of Wallachia provides for 21 fine hawks<sup>40</sup>. Sometimes varieties of birds related to the hawks were supplied. In 1603 Transylvania sent ten pairs of hawks to Constantinople<sup>41</sup>.

The princes of Wallachia and Moldavia as well as those of Transylvania also went hawking. Prince Sutu's order of 1792 also referred to a number of hawks for his own "use."

From the very earliest times a body of hunters had been in the service of the prince. This was a military-like organization, headed by a Captain and obliged to take part in war within the prince's army. According to Cantemir, in peace time "their pursuit is to hunt, and so they bring alive, for the pleasure of the prince, or dead, for his table, various animals : stags, bison, wild sheep, as well as other game living in the forests ; for their trouble they are exempted from taxation and , moreover, receive wages, especially for gunpowder and bullets."<sup>42</sup>

In Moldavia the prince's hunters lived in a village named Vinători (hunters) sited not far from the town of Piatra in Neamţ county. It was a village of some hundred homesteads, first mentioned in a document of January 25, 1446 issued by Prince Ştefan, son of Alexander the Good<sup>43</sup>. In the course of time the village developed, "swarmed", so that the statistical map of 1835 records four settlements in Neamţ county : Vinători (355 homesteads), Vinătorii Cotu (118 home-

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<sup>37</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, III, p. 15.

<sup>38</sup> Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, III, 2, p. 459—460.

<sup>39</sup> *Descriptio Moldaviae*, p. 271.

<sup>40</sup> Urechia, *History of the Romanians*, IV, p. 279.

<sup>41</sup> Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, III., 2, p. 266.

<sup>42</sup> *Descriptio Moldaviae*, p. 220—221.

<sup>43</sup> Costăchescu, *Moldavian Documents*, p. 239.



steads), Vinătorii Piatra (70 homesteads), and Vinătorii peste vale (54 homesteads)<sup>44</sup>.

There was a corps of princely hunters in Wallachia, too. Neagoe Basarab, Wallachia's prince-to-be (1512–1521), was a hunters' captain during the reign of Radu the Great (1495–1508), Mihnea the Evil (1508–1510) and Vlăduț (1510–1512)<sup>45</sup>.

Until November 2 1891 no law on hunting had been issued. In the law of December 25 1868 governing the police in the countryside, article 102 laid down: "The hunting season is open for eight months of the year; from 1 April to 1 August it is closed for every kind of game except for the birds of passage and the animals causing damage such as bears, wolves, wild boars and others. It is forbidden to take and break eggs and nests of birds whose hunting is prohibited, on any estate whatsoever. A law and special regulations shall enlarge on the principles in the above article." The law was drawn up in 1891 and did not yield the results that had been expected as there was no sufficient personnel to ensure proper watch; nor did the law of March 28 1906, which followed the law of 1891, yield any results. The first efficient law on hunting dates from October 27 1921; it was significantly entitled: "Law on Game Protection and the Regulation of Hunting." This law, which lays stress on game protection, was the point of departure for a favourable evolution as regards big game which is no longer in danger of disappearing, but on the contrary has multiplied. An Order in Council issued in 1953 supplemented and made specifications to the Law of 1921.

In connection with game protection, it should be mentioned that parks and nature reserves have been created, where hunting is forbidden and fishing for sport is only allowed under certain conditions. We have in mind the reserve in the Hațeg Land set up between the two World Wars, as well as the more recent Danube Delta reserve.

We will add that a Hunting Museum was set up in Bucharest on December 20 1932, and that a National Hunting Exhibition was staged from May 9 to June 30 1935<sup>46</sup>. Furthermore, Romania attended International Exhibitions organized at Novi Sad, Florence, Budapest and elsewhere many gold medals were awarded to the valuable Romanian trophies on show.

Hunting has also been a pursuit of economic significance because venison, flesh and fowl are sold for consumption while fur also bring profit, some of them being much prized. Exportation of marten

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<sup>44</sup> Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 212.

<sup>45</sup> Popescu, *Histories*, p. 28, 29, 31.

<sup>46</sup> "Carpați," I (1933), I, p. 16; III (1936), 5, p. 101.

<sup>47</sup> Costăchescu, *op. cit.*, p. 635.

skins was forbidden in Moldavia as this was game of no frequent occurrence. Thus, in the commercial privilege granted by Alexander the Good to the inhabitants of Lwow on October 6 1408, it is stipulated that marten skins could not be taken out of the country, the same as silver, wax and "good draught horses."<sup>47</sup>

The commercial privilege granted by Wallachia to the people of Braşov in 1413 provides that duty amounting to one ducat was to be paid for the export of a stag skin, but "if other skins are exported together with it, no duty is to be paid for them."<sup>48</sup> Exports of marten skins were not forbidden, as shown in a confirmation of the privilege granted to the Braşov people by Prince Dan II in 1422, which mentioned "the furs of wild animals, whether squirrels, foxes, wild cats or hares." The duty amounted to 1 ducat for every 30 ducats' worth<sup>49</sup>. In this connection, lynxes were mentioned in documents of 1422 and 1424<sup>50</sup>. The exportation of the furs of wild animals continued without any interruption. During Brâncoveanu's reign, according to the customs tariff of 1 January 1691, export duties for furs were: 60 bani for a marten or fox; 4 bani for a wolf; 40 bani for a lynx; 8 bani for an otter and 1 ban for two polecats<sup>51</sup>. In 1867 the annual income derived from such exports amounted to 208,753 lei<sup>52</sup>.

Nowadays, hunting, apart from its economic contribution, is considered to be of outstanding value for the people's relaxation. Over 200,000 hunters and fishermen, members of the General Association of Sport Hunters and Fishermen of the Socialist Republic of Romania, practise this sport observing the rules of the Association. Alongside the sylviculturists whose task it is to see to the rational management of this source of wealth, they help to preserve and develop the country's game and fish. The law on hunting is well thought-out and its steady application will confirm in future also Romania's reputation as a country yielding fine game.

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<sup>48</sup> Bogdan, *Documents — Braşov*, p. 5.

<sup>49</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 19.

<sup>50</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 20 and 23.

<sup>51</sup> Iorga, *Studies and Documents*, V, p. 364—367.

<sup>52</sup> *Notice*, p. 114.

## FORESTS AND ROMANIAN PLACE-NAMES

*From along all categories of Romanian place-names suggested by the nature of the land, those related to forests and their various aspects are the most numerous.*

The great number of Romanian forests and their extent as well as the variety of the species are reflected in a wealth of place-names throughout the country. To begin with, some names are related to the generic term *pădure* and to its various types: Pădureni, Pădureți, Păduroi, Păduroaica, Codru, Sihlă, Bunget, Dumbravă, Reditu, Crîng, Huciu or Heciu, Zăvoi. Place-names are also suggestive of wood clearings, whether natural or man-made: Poiană, Poieniță, Laz, Runc, Curătură, Jariște, Arșiță. And there are also places which bear the names of different varieties of trees, considered individually or collectively, and of forest shrubs: Bradul, Paltinul, Carpenul, Stejarul, Fagul, Ulmul, Singerul, Plopul, Călinul and also Brădet, Făget and Făgăraș, Ceret and Ceraș, Mlăjeț, Stejăret, Ulmet, Păltiniș, Cărpiniș, Aluniș, Mestecăniș, Ariniș, Meriș and Periș Mălini and Mălinet, Ruget, Scoruget, Smeuret, Socet, Spinet. Some place-names recall the pursuits of the woodworkers (Șindrilari, Buștenari, Blidari, Scăfari, Rudari, Tulnicari, Cărbunari, Dogari, Funari) or of those keeping watch over the forest (Pădurari, Brănișteri) or forest game. It is not surprising therefore that out of all Romanian place-names related to the nature of the land, those suggestive of forests and their different aspects are the most numerous.

In the pages to follow we do not intend to present exhaustively the Romanian place-names related to forests. This would be beyond the scope of this work and might fill a whole volume. We will confine ourselves to some representative examples, insisting upon old place-names, which occur in various historical sources.

**Names of countries, lands or counties related to forests.** Transylvania's name comes from Latin and means "The Country Beyond the Forest," referring to the vast forests of the Apuseni Mountains. The same meaning is rendered by its other name, Ultransilvania, recorded in certain mediaeval sources. The same given by Hungarians to the Romanian country beyond the mountains is even



closer to reality: "Erdely," meaning The Land of the Forest or the Wooded Land<sup>1</sup>.

According to some etymologists the name of "Moldova" comes from a tree, *molid* or spruce<sup>2</sup>.

The large number of forest clearings accounts for the name of an age-old Romanian land, "Oaş," with characteristic costumes, songs and dances. *Oaş* comes from the Hungarian *ovas* "clearing." The existence of this name of Hungarian origin does not belittle the old Romanian character of this region the same as the German origin of the name of Lombardy, Burgundy or Normandy is not altering the Italian or French character of these provinces. "Pădureni" (forest inhabitants), in the Hunedoara county designated one of the oldest regions in Romania, preserving many vestiges of the way of life of the Dacian ancestors in clothing and footwear, in house building and customs<sup>3</sup>. The name of Făget, as also of the respective borough, recalls the extensive beech forests in the Banat region. In connection with *The Events of the Years 1848 and 1849 in the Făget area*, Partenie Gruescu, parish priest in Sintești related the sufferings of the population "who had run away to the forests like wild beasts."<sup>4</sup> "Silvania" stands for "forest region" and designates that part in the north-west of Transylvania (Sălaj county) where the towns of *Șimleu Silvaniei* and *Cehu Silvaniei* are to be found.

The name of the *Vrancea* Land in Moldavia has been variously explained. In our opinion, it should be referred to the dark aspect of the fir forests (Old Slavic *vran* = black), which has also suggested the names of a number of mountains in the Balkans, and of the Cernegura (Cerna Hora) mountain not far from Piatra Neamț<sup>5</sup>. The name of Bucovina (beech forest) is modern having been given by the Austrians after their arbitrary annexation of that province in 1775, because of the great local forests 15th century documents describe as *bucovine*<sup>6</sup>.

In Dobruđa, there is the "Codrul" (high forest) region in the north, which during the dark millennium of the migratory populations favoured the continuity of the Romanic element.

The names of several counties in Wallachia are connected to forests. We have in mind *Ilfov*, *Dimbovița*, *Teleorman* and *Pădurej*.

<sup>1</sup> Iordan, *Romanian Toponymy*, p. 474.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 478.

<sup>3</sup> Romulus Vuia, *Ethnographische Beweise für das Alter und die Kontinuität des rumänischen Volkes in Siebenbürgen*, in *Siebenbürgen*, I, Bucharest, 1943, p. 35–36.

<sup>4</sup> Academy, ms. 1059, f. 82.

<sup>5</sup> Giurescu, *Vrancea*.

<sup>6</sup> Hurmuzaki—Densusianu, *Documents*, I, 2, p. 485. In Slavo-Romanian documents beech forests are generally designated by the term *bucovine*.

The name of Ilfov dates down to the coinhabitation of Romanians and Slavs and means "alder grove." From the Slav *ielha* (alder) the adjective *ielhov* was derived, and the present-day form was formed by successive transformations, as proved by documents of the 15th–18th centuries. "Dimbovița" was thus called because of its extensive oak forests (ДЖЕЛ = oak) which account both for the name of the river that ran through them and for that of the Dimbovnic. Teleorman (mad forest) is a heritage of the coinhabitation with the old Turkish populations, Petchenegs and Cumans. It is interesting to note that on the territory of Teleorman county and of the neighbouring areas we also come across old Turkish river names: Călmățui, Teslui, Geamartalui, etc.<sup>7</sup>

*Pădureț* (of forest) is the name of a former county, located between Argeș and Muscel counties, and is to be accounted for by the large number of forests covering it. Since its area was not wide and as there was no borough or town on its territory, it was struck off the map already at the end of the 16th century or early in the 17th century. In a document dated 23 January 1609, the name of the neighbouring county which incorporated it, though not wholly, is Muscel and Pădureț<sup>8</sup>. Pădureț county had many flocks of sheep as shown by a document of 24 July 1524, whereby Prince Vladislav bestowed on the hospital of Sîmidreni Monastery and on the travellers' shelter of Argeș Monastery "all the cheeses made in Pădureț county, all the income derived from cheese of every kind, and any other income."<sup>9</sup>

The names of the former Moldavian counties of Codru and Tutova recall the forest. The first, mentioned in 18th century documents, comes from the Tigheciu Forest which was located entirely in that county. A socio-fiscal register of April 1786, as yet unpublished<sup>10</sup>, records some rate-payers, "in the Codrul county." The name of Tutova county was given during the coinhabitation of Romanians and Slavs. *Tut* (blackberry)<sup>11</sup>, points to the blackberry bushes which were numerous in the extensive forests of medieval Tutova.

"Făgăraș" county in Transylvania is directly bound up with forests; the etymology is clear: from *fag* (beech), *făgar* was formed and from it, *făgăraș*, synonymous with *făget* (beech grove)<sup>12</sup>. The

<sup>7</sup> I. Conea and I. Donat, *Contributions à l'étude de la toponymie péchtinègue-comane de la plaine roumaine du Bas Danube*, in *Contributions onomastiques*, Bucharest, 1958, p. 139–169.

<sup>8</sup> *D.I.R. B*, 17th century, vol. I, p. 358.

<sup>9</sup> *D.I.R. B*, 16th century, vol. I, p. 181.

<sup>10</sup> Academy, ms. 943, f. 366 v and 58 v.

<sup>11</sup> Iordan, *op. cit.*, p. 480.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 66.

former counties of "Tirnavă Mare" and "Tirnavă Mică" were named after the homonymous rivers which crossed lands where thorns (Old Slavic *tyrn*) were plentiful.

**Names of boroughs or towns related to the forest.** We should mention in Wallachia in the 15th—20th centuries: *Tismana*, the two boroughs named *Cornățel*, *Soci*, *Brădiceni*, *Bucov*, *Bușteni*, *Plopeni* and *Țândărei*. *Tismana* — first a village and since the 15th century, a town where the governors of the district administered justice<sup>13</sup> — apparently derives its name from *tisa*, the beautiful yew-tree with heavy, dense reddish wood which, according to the tradition was used when the first Monastery Church of *Tismana* was built in the 14th century<sup>14</sup>. The explanation is justified as the name of this tree is found also in other place-names. The statistical map of 1835 records a *Tisa* hermitage in the south-western part of Roman county (R.P. 266)<sup>15</sup> and the *Tisești* villages in Bacău county (R.P. 214). The name of the river *Tisa* is most probably derived from the same tree for there were many yews in the forests on the upper reaches of the river.

The process seems to be similar to that which resulted in the names of the rivers *Dimbovița*, *Dimbovnic*, *Ilfov* and *Teleorman* in Wallachia, and of the river *Tutova* in Moldavia. A similar explanation has been proposed for the name of the river *Moldova* (from *molid*, spruce) and of *Lake Dranov* in *Dobruđa*<sup>16</sup> (from the Slavic *dren* = cornel).

*Cornus mas*, a tree with heavy wood, early yellow flowers and red fruit, grows throughout the Romanian territory. Hence, the large number of place-names related to the cornelian cherry (*Cornu*, *Cornii*, *Cornet*, *Corniș* — cornel grove — and *Cornățel*, diminutive). In *Ilfov* county, a village on the *Mestîș-a* pond, called *Cornățel* became a borough in the 16th century and was even spoken of as a town during the reign of *Matei Basarab*. As *Matei Basarab* founded a beautiful church there, a second name was added, *Mănăstirea*, which gradually prevailed upon the first. On the statistical map of 1835 both names are marked. This locality decayed in the 18th and 19th centuries, turning into a village again, and is known now only by its second name. It shows again an ascending evolution,

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<sup>13</sup> See *D.R.H.*, B, vol. I, p. 590.

<sup>14</sup> Ștefulescu, *Tismana*, p. 51.

<sup>15</sup> As this map is reproduced in *Giurescu Romanian Principalities*, we shall further refer the reader to it in an abbreviated form: (R.P. p. ...).

<sup>16</sup> Jordan, *op. cit.*, p. 65.



being well on its way to becoming a borough<sup>17</sup>. In Dimbovița county, "Cornățel" was a borough in the 17th century being known for its stone bridge over the river Dimbovița; its evolution was regressive during the Phanariot period when it turned into a village.

*Socii*, called after the common elder (*Sambucus nigra*), the well-known shrub with white, sweet-scented blossoms with healing properties, was in the 15th century a small borough in Rîmnicul-Sărat county not far from the Romanian border. It was here that, in 1471, Stephen the Great defeated Radu the Handsome of Wallachia<sup>18</sup>. Being in the way of the armies and having been repeatedly plundered and burnt, this borough decayed, too. At the beginning of the 19th century it was a mere hamlet with a few houses, as shown on the statistical map of 1835.

*Brădicenii*, in Gorj county, was a borough in the 18th century and it is marked as a borough on the map of 1835; it developed after the South Slavs from Kiprovals and Kobilovats settled there at the beginning of Brâncoveanu's reign. It is called after an old man, Brădiceanu, whose name derived in its turn from *brad* (fir).

*Bucov* (from the Slavic *buk* = beech), in the vicinity of Ploiești, was a borough towards the close of the Phanariot period and the main town of the former Săcuieni county in the early 19th century, after which it decayed because of the competition of the town of Ploiești, which drew all the dynamic elements of the county<sup>19</sup>.

*Bușteni* and *Plopeni*, in Prahova county, date only from the 20th century. The former town borrowed its name from the fir and beech logs (*bușteni*) that were stored here after being felled in the forests on the neighbouring mountains; a sawmill and a paper mill were set up here before long. "Plopeni," whose name recalls the poplar, was first a village and became a town only after 23 August 1944. *Țândărei* in Ialomița county is also a new town of the 20th century. It was thus named after the descendants of the founder or first owner of the village, Țândără nicknamed from *țandără*, the splinter that flies from the trunk of a tree cut with an axe.

In Transylvania, the land of forests, no less than ten towns have names which have some connection with the woods, whether directly or indirectly. To begin with *Moldova Nouă*, close to the Danube, in Caraș Severin county, whose name we consider to be connected with spruce (*molid*); in the same county "Bocșa" bears

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<sup>17</sup> Giurescu, *Cornățelul*, p. 2.

<sup>18</sup> See Const. C. Giurescu, *The Battle of Soci*, in "Studii și Materiale de Istorie Medie," IV, 1960.

<sup>19</sup> Gh. Petrescu-Sava (Gh. Zagoritz), *Boroughs and Towns Between Tîrgoviște and Bucharest*, Bucharest, 1937, 110 p. in 8°.

the name of a circular pile of beech, lime or other pieces of wood which turn into charcoal following a slow smouldering combustion. Such charcoal piles were often built up there, just as in Satu Mare county, and also at Mogoş in the Teleajen valley, in Prahova county. The name "Făgăraş" has already been explained when dealing with the county. The same applies to "Făget", which after being a borough underwent a regressive evolution. In Hunedoara county, in the heart of the Apuseni mountains, there is the town of *Brad* (fir). The names of "Dumbrăveni," in Sibiu county, and "Tirnăveni," in Mureş county, are derived from "Tirnavă" and "Dumbrava," respectively. In the south-eastern extremity of Bihor county we find the town of "Nucet," whose name refers to one of the many characteristic walnut groves on Romanian territory. To conclude, we will mention the two towns in Sălaj county: "Şimleu Silvaniei" and "Cehu Silvaniei," the former being also noted on account of its valuable archaeological finds of the migration period.

**Village names.** The most numerous place-names connected with forests designate rural settlements — villages or hamlets — with their precincts and boundaries. There are hundreds of such names if we consider only the settlements proper, and their number rises to thousands if we consider also their boundaries and the forests, glades, clearings and other components. Thus, within the boundaries of Chiojdul commune in Buzău county, apart from the component villages — Poieniţele de Sus (The Upper Glades), Poieniţele de Jos (The Lower Glades) and Cătiaşul, formerly Cătiniaşul, from *cătină* — we also find Poiana Carpenului (Hornbeam Glade), Groapa Paltinului (Maple Pit), Brădet (Fir Grove), Runcul (The Clearing), Aluniş (The Hazel Grove).

We shall illustrate the various categories of place-names with examples based on the statistical map of 1835 and on yet unpublished documents. To begin with, the names related to the generic term *pădure* and to the various kinds of woods and forests. The statistical map of 1835 records the village of Adunaţii ot Pădurea Domnească, Berzeiu de Pădure (185 homesteads) and Colţii Pădurea, a hamlet of 5—20 homesteads in Dimboviţa county, and Filipeştii de Pădure (148 homesteads) in Prahova county (R.P. p. 223, 232, 258). "Pădureni" was the name of several villages in Putna, Tecuci and Roman counties (R.P. p. 261, 265, 275), as well as of a village in Crişana, now part of the town of Chişinău-Criş in Arad county<sup>20</sup>. There are also Păduroii de Sus (44 homesteads)

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<sup>20</sup> *Dates*, p. 150.

and Păduroii de Jos (55 homesteads), both of them in Argeş county (R.P. p. 211); and also Păduroiu in the Lăpuş Valley in Transylvania. As for "Pădureţii", according to a document of 29 April 1626, the village of Clanţa, north of Bucharest, apparently situated on what is today Herăstrău, also had as second name "Pădureţii de la Iutele"<sup>21</sup>. "Pădureţii" was also the old name of Buştenari in Prahova county; a village of 59 homesteads is marked with both names on the map of 1835 (R.P. p. 258). *Pădureţii* in the former Pădureţi county had probably been the residential town of the county head. Furthermore, we will mention two villages named "Pădureţi" in Teleorman county, a bigger one of 160 homesteads and a hamlet of 5—20 homesteads, as well as the village of Pădureşti in the same county, of 46 homesteads (R.P. p. 119). They are reminiscent of the great forests of yore which induced the Petchenegs and Cumans to call the region "Mad Forest."

Out of villages named after the various kinds of forests, we will first mention Bungetu of 58 homesteads in Dimboviţa county (R.P. p. 222). A number of villages bear names derived from *codru* (high forest): Codreni (22 homesteads) in Ilfov county; Codreana (5—20 homesteads) in Dorohoi county, and two villages named Codreşti, one of them of 45 homesteads and the other of 30 homesteads, in Rîmnicul-Sărat county (R.P. p. 228, 243, 262). *Crivina*, which means forest on marshy land, has given its name to a number of villages sited on its edge: Crivina (100 homesteads), in Mehedinţi county (R.P. p. 247); Crivina and Crighina (34 homesteads), in Dimboviţa county (R.P. p. 223). The word *crîng* (small young forest; grove) is also found in several place-names: Crîngu Boriţa (63 homesteads) in Mehedinţi county (R.P. p. 247); Crîngu Sasului; Crîngu Strejnic (53 homesteads) and Crîngu Teiului (20 homesteads) in Prahova county (R.P. p. 258), and moreover Crîngu Stamatinului, a hamlet of 5—20 homesteads in Putna county (R.P. p. 260). We will furthermore mention Crîngurile, a medium-sized village of 104 homesteads, in Dimboviţa county (R.P. p. 223), and Crîngaşi, an incipient hamlet of 1—5 homesteads (R.P. p. 243), today incorporated in Bucharest. A village called Dumbrava (riverside coppice) in Vaslui county is mentioned in a document of 18 September 1639 as yet unpublished<sup>22</sup>. The diminutive, Dumbrăviţa, designates a village of 60 homesteads in Mehedinţi county (R.P. p. 247), one of 20 homesteads in Putna county (R.P. p. 260), and another of 132

<sup>21</sup> D.R.H., B, vol. XXI, Bucharest, 1965, p. 105; Giurescu, *History of Bucharest*, p. 256.

<sup>22</sup> Academy, Romanian ms. 827, f. 5.



homesteads in Roman county (R.P. p. 265). There are two villages in Suceava county: Dumbrăvița di Jos and Dumbrăvița di Sus, of 40 and 42 homesteads, respectively (R.P. p. 272). Dumbrăveni designated a big village of 267 homesteads in Suceava county (R.P. p. 272), and another village of only 66 homesteads in Tutova county (R.P. p. 280). *Heciu* (thick grove), a term which occurs rather seldom, is the name of a big village of 212 homesteads in Suceava county (R.P. p. 273), and *Sihlea* (old impenetrable forest), is the name of a village of 72 homesteads in Rîmnicul-Sărat county (R.P. p. 263). Many villages are named *Rediu* (grove). Nineteenth-century settlements with this name or a compound one (Rediul Aldii, Rediu Bălan, Rediu Tatarii, etc.) were known in Fălciu, Hîrlău, Roman, Iași, Dorohoi, Vaslui, Tecuci, Roman and Olt<sup>23</sup>.

There are a great many villages named *Poiana* which points to their location in natural forest glades. Moreover, they bring valuable testimony to the previous existence of forests in places where there are none at present. In a document of 10 August 1643, as yet unpublished, Matei Basarab confirmed the title of Menedic Monastery in Buzău county to "the whole Menedic glade with all the boundary." The landmarks along the boundary include "The Peak of the Hidden Glade... The Shepherds' Peak up to Arceri."<sup>24</sup> It was in that glade that the monastery by the same name as well as the village were founded. The Statistical Map of 1835 records numbers of settlements bearing the name of *Poiana* or compounds with *Poiana*<sup>25</sup>.

According to the data provided by the Alphabetic Directory of Localities in the Romanian Peoples' Republic, in 1956 there were no less than 205 settlements whose names recalled forest glades (135 *Poiana*, sometimes with the addition of a man's name or of a tree; 25 *Poeni* or *Poenile*; 16 *Poenița*, *Poenițe*, *Poenițele*; 22 *Poenari* and 7 *Poenști* and *Poenărie*). This is a valuable indication of the extension of forests in former days.

A great many village names are bound up with man-made clearings such as *Runc*, *Curătură*, *Săcătură*, *Laz*, *Jariște* and *Arșiță*.

According to the Statistical Map, *Runcu* is the name of a village of 95 homesteads in Argeș county (R.P. p. 211), of another of 29 homesteads in Buzău county (R.P. p. 219), yet another of 48 homesteads in Dîmbovița county (R.P. p. 224) and finally of one of 67 homesteads in Vîlcea county (R.P. p. 285). In Mehedinți

<sup>23</sup> Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 229, 232, 236, 241, 257, 265, 276, 282.

<sup>24</sup> Academy, *Documents*, CXXXVI/3 a.

<sup>25</sup> Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, *sub voce*, in every county.

county, there was a Runcșoru and a Runcu-Rediu, of 42 homesteads (R.P. p. 249). Curătura designates a small village (26 homesteads) in Iași county (R.P. p. 240) and a hamlet of 5–20 homesteads in Mehedinți county (R.P. p. 247). A village of 40 homesteads bears a compound name, Blidari-Curătu[ra], in Rîmnicul-Sărat county (R.P. p. 262). Săcătura is used as a second, explanatory name for two villages in Putna county: Văsuu (Săcătura), of 35 homesteads (R.P. p. 189) and Părosu (Săcătura) of 69 homesteads (R.P. p. 261). The second name shows that the settlements were sited in a place where the forest was cleared with the axe and spade. Such were also the conditions under which the village of Lazurile (58 homesteads in Dimbovița county) was founded (R.P. p. 223) as were also the villages named Lazu in Alba, Arad, Constanța, Dolj, Gorj, Mehedinți and Vaslui counties. *Jariștea* in Putna county was placed in a clearing made by burning the trees of the vast oak forest on Măgura Odobeștilor; the village is marked with 131 homesteads on the map of 1835 (R.P. p. 260). It was also in the clearings made by forest burning that the villages named Arșița were built in Putna, Vaslui, Maramureș, Bistrița-Năsăud and Mureș counties, and the same applies to the villages Arsuri in Gorj, Hunedoara, Caraș-Severin and Dimbovița counties, Arsura in Vaslui county, Arsa in Constanța county, and Arsele in Buzău county.

The names of villages related to forest trees and shrubs are the most numerous and this is only natural, considering the extension and the frequent occurrence of the old forests. A derivative of the generic term *copac* (tree) is found in: Copăcenii, in Gorj, Muscel, Vilcea and Vlașca counties, the last-named being also mentioned on the High Steward Cantacuzino's map as Adunații ot Copăcenii (R.P. p. 233, 251, 284, 286). Furthermore, there is Copăcioasa (134 homesteads) in Gorj county (R.P. p. 233), Cozia Copăcești (R.P. p. 260) or Slobozia-Copăcești (R.P. p. 290) in Putna county. On 7 August 1639 Matei Basarab confirmed the title of Preda, Lord Steward, of Ceplea in Gorj county, to an estate in Sărdănești and in Copăcel <sup>26</sup>.

The hazel has given its name to a village, Alun (171 homesteads) in Vilcea county and to Alunișul of 44 homesteads in Săcuieni county (R.P. p. 283, 269). The alder (*anin* or *arin*), frequently met with throughout the Romanian territory, is well represented in place-names. The map of 1835 records Valea Arinilor (Alder Valley), a village of 77 homesteads in Bacău county (R.P. p. 214), Aninoasa in Muscel county and Aninoasa (153 homesteads) in Fălciu county

<sup>26</sup> Ștefulescu, *Slavo-Romanian Documents*, p. 487–488.

(R.P. p. 251, 232), Anenoasa in Dîmbovița county (R.P. p. 222) and Valea Aninoasa in Săcuieni county (R.P. p. 271). Arțarul (the Maple) is the name of a village of 90 homesteads in Ialomița county (R.P. p. 237).

It is only natural that the name of the fir, *brad*, a word of Dacian origin, should be present in a great many place-names. We find it even in districts where firs are not usually met with as, for example, in Teleorman county, where the map of 1835 has Bradu de Sus of 36 homesteads, and Bradu de Jos, of 63 homesteads (R.P.—p.277). We would also mention Bradu, a village of 21 homesteads in Neamț county (R.P. p. 253); Bradului, in Roman county (R.P. p. 265); Brazii in Putna county (R.P. p. 260); Valea Bradului (Fir Valley) in Muscel county (R.P. p. 252); two villages named Brădet (fir grove) in Mehedinți county (R.P. p. 246), one of them of 106 homesteads and the other of 5—20 homesteads, a mere hamlet; Brădet in Argeș county and a hamlet of the same name in Suceava county (R.P. p. 272). In Bucharest, one of the central residential district was named “Brazii” in the latter half of the 18th century from the name of the “Church with the Fir” (today Boteanu Church), just as a neighbouring district was named “Stejarul” (the oak) from the stately oak standing by the brick church raised in 1763 by Captain Tănase and Stanciul, head of the Bakers’ Guild <sup>27</sup>.

The hornbeam (*carpen*), a first-rate tree yielding choice wood, has given its name to three villages in Dolj county : Carpenii de Jos, of 47 homesteads, Carpenii de Mijloc, of 57 homesteads and Carpenii de Sus of 87 homesteads (R.P. p. 225). On 15 October 1427, Alexander the Good gave his servant Oancea, for true and faithful service, a village at Cărpiniș (hornbeam grove), with the village boundary as follows : “from the forest onwards along the old boundary.” <sup>28</sup> Two small villages, Carpenișul de Sus and Carpenișul de Jos of 40 and 44 homesteads respectively, are mentioned in Dîmbovița county (R.P. p. 222). A Carpanișu (107 homesteads) is mentioned in Gorj (R.P. p. 233).

The guelder rose occurs in the collective form Călinet (guelder rose grove). On 6 June 1578, Prince Mihnea confirmed “an estate at Călinet.” <sup>29</sup>

The name of the village of Cătina, in the Bîsca Chiojdului Valley in Buzău county, comes from the shrub of the *Hippophae rhamnoides*; the name of the village of Cătiașul can be explained

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<sup>27</sup> Giurescu, *History of Bucharest*, p. 359, 363.

<sup>28</sup> Costăchescu, *Moldavian Documents*, I, p. 196.

<sup>29</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, 16th century, vol. IV, p. 316.



in the same way; an old form—Cătiniașul—occurs in a document of August 21 1562 <sup>30</sup>.

The Turkey oak (*cer*) has given its name to the village of Ceraș in Prahova county and to Ceretul in Dolj county, both of them mentioned on the High Steward's map. The name of the cherry tree (*cireș*), whether wild or cultivated, is recognizable in: Cereș (125 homesteads) in Dolj county; Cereșu (41 homesteads) in Mehedinți county, and Cereșu (119 homesteads) in Vilcea county (R.P. p. 225, 247, 283). Cereășovu de Jos (42 homesteads in 1835) and Cereășovu de Sus (36 homesteads) are two old villages in Olt county dating from the time of Mircea the Old (R.P. p. 256). There was also a Slobozia Cereșului in Rimnicul-Sărat county (R.P. p. 262)).

The name of *Cornus mas* <sup>31</sup> occurs in several village designations: in the singular — Cornul, Cornu — or in the plural — Cornii, in compounds — Cornu de Jos, Cornu de Sus, or in collective names — Cornetul, Cornățel. Such names are recorded in 1835 in the counties of Mehedinți, Dîmbovița, Prahova, Tecuci, Tutova, Neamț, Suceava, Covurlui, Fălciu, Bacău, Argeș, Ilfov, Olt, Putna, Teleorman, Dolj, Roman. The Slavic word for this tree, *dren*, occurs in the names of the villages Drencova, Drînceni, Dranov, and Dranovăț <sup>32</sup>.

The beech (*fag*), that lovely tree specific of our country, is also found in village names. We come across it in a document dated 20 June 1489, whereby Prince Vlad the Monk confirms the title of Milco, High Steward, to several villages and parts of villages, among which "the sixth part of Fintina Fagului" (beech well) <sup>33</sup> in Olt county. In Neamț county a small village of 26 homesteads was named Tirvu-Fagu (R.P. p. 255), and a hamlet Făgețelu (R.P. p. 253). In Olt county (R.P. p. 256) we find Făgețelu de Sus (60 homesteads) and Făgețelu de Jos (25 homesteads). The Slavic root *buk* (beech) occurs in Bucovu (50 homesteads) in Teleorman county (R.P. p. 277) and Bucovicioru (61 homesteads) in Mehedinți county (R.P. p. 247).

The ash-tree (*frasin*), much appreciated for its timber and roots out of which fine furniture is made, is also characteristic of Romania and has been used in place-names from the earliest times. Under a deed dated Argeș, 27 December 1391, Mircea the Old donates to

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<sup>30</sup> "Revista Istorică," XVIII (1932), p. 260.

<sup>31</sup> See Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 213, 221, 223, 225, 231, 246, 247, 253, 256, 258, 260, 265, 272, 275, 278. A very old mention is found in a document of July 21st, 1390, settling some boundaries which refer to '*supercillum...montes Hegor*' (Mihalyi, *Maramureș Diplomas*, p. 108).

<sup>32</sup> Iordan, *op. cit.*, p. 65.

<sup>33</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, p. 347.

Father Superior Stanciul and his brother Călin the estate of Scorei in the Făgăraş Land, free from all taxes. In the deed establishing the boundaries, one of the landmarks is "the place named the Ash Angle." <sup>34</sup> A charter dated 6 September 1598 was issued by Michael the Brave to confirm his title and that of his children to the villages he had bought in Romanati county at the time when he was only a boyar; among other villages, there is Frăsinetul de Sus <sup>35</sup>. The map of 1835 records a *Frasinul* in Vlaşca county (R.P. p. 188) and another in Buzău county (R.P. p. 218), as well as a Frasini (55 homesteads) in Dolj county (R.P. p. 226), and one of 75 homesteads in Vlaşca county (R.P. p. 287); Frăsinetu in Romanati county (R.P. p. 267) is Michael the Brave's village, and there is another one (R.P. p. 287) in Vlaşca county. An old village named Frăsinet in Ilfov county on the river Mostiştea was mentioned in a document dated 26 February 1627 <sup>36</sup>. Furthermore, there is a Frăsineni in Buzău county.

*Gîrniţa*, a variety of oak (*Quercus frainetto*) has given its name of three villages in Mehedinţi county: Ghîrniţa (130 homesteads), Ghirniţa de Jos (120 homesteads) and Ghirniţa de Sus (100 homesteads, R.P. p. 247, 248). The fiscal statistics of 1831 mentions Gîrniţa Noo in Rimnicul-Sărat county (R.P. p. 101). Durmast (*Quercus petraea*), the very best oak, occurs in the name of Goruna, a village of 29 homesteads in Prahova county (R.P. p. 258), but mostly as a collective, Gornet (short for Gorunet). We find three Gornetul in Săcuieni county, of 22, 36 and 102 homesteads (R.P. p. 269) and a hamlet of 5—20 homesteads in Buzău county (R.P. p. 218), and the village Valea Gornetului, of 78 homesteads, in Săcuieni county (R.P. p. 271).

The bird cherry, a not very tall tree with white, sweet-smelling blossoms, was used to designate a big village of 211 homesteads, Mălini, in Suceava county (R.P. p. 273).

Osier (*młajă*) has lent its name to the village of Mlăjet in what was formerly Săcuieni county, today Buzău county. The village is marked on the High Steward's map as well as on the map of 1835, with 36 homesteads (R.P. p. 270). The large number of wild apple-trees has suggested the names of a number of villages. Thus, in Mehedinţi county we find Merişu (apple grove) of 63 homesteads and Meret with 48 homesteads (R.P. 248). Moreover, there is a

<sup>34</sup> D.I.R., B.

<sup>35</sup> D.I.R. B, 16th century, vol. VI, p. 337 and 340.

<sup>36</sup> D.I.R., B, vol. XXI, p. 191. On the map of 1835 it is marked with 46 homesteads (R.P., p. 243).

Meriş in Gorj county. In Teleorman county (R.P. p. 278) there are two Merişani (130 and 40 homesteads); there is a Merişani in Argeş county, too.

The stately walnut-tree (*nuc*) is met with all over the country's territory. There is a hamlet named Nucu in Buzău county (R.P. p. 218) and a Nuci in Rimnicul-Sărat county (R.P. p. 263). Nucii Mutei is a village of 32 homesteads in Dolj county (R.P. p. 226). We furthermore find Nucetul (67 homesteads) in Dimboviţa county and one of 62 homesteads in Săcuieni county (R.P. p. 224, 270) as well as Valea Nucetului in Săcuieni county again (R.P. p. 271). The diminutive Nucşoara is the name of a village of 40 homesteads in Muscel county (R.P. p. 251). We should add that Nucşoara is also the new name of a village in Prahova county, formerly called Rîncezi.

The sycamore (*paltin*) is a high-class tree whose timber is used for fine furniture and for musical instruments. In place-names the term occurs under different forms. One of the old villages in Vrancea Land named Paltinu, was marked with 78 homesteads on the map of 1835 (R.P. p. 261). Paltenu was the name of a small village of only 26 homesteads in former Săcuieni county (R.P. p. 270), where we also come across Păltineni, a village of 34 homesteads, mentioned in the High Steward's map as well. In Suceava county we find Păltinişu (R.P. p. 273); Păltiniş is also the name of a health resort south-west of Sibiu below the Cindrelu mountain. The form Păltinaş, to be compared with Ceraş and Făgăraş, occurs in the name of Gura Păltinaşului (29 homesteads) in the former Săcuieni county (R.P. p. 269). Finally, there is Păltineşti (124 homesteads) in Dorohoi county (R.P. p. 229), formerly called Păltinişul. This is proved by the deed issued in Iaşi in 1632—1633 under which Tudori, Governor of Hotin, sold to Court Marshal Gavrilaş the villages of Cotela in Hotin county and of Păltinişul in Dorohoi county, for 800 lei<sup>37</sup>. Ion Neculce records an interesting tradition which connects the foundation of the Moldavian Monastery of Slatina with a sycamore. "Alexandru Lăpuşneanu being Prince of the country had Slatina Monastery erected. And people say that a hermit lived there and that a big sycamore grew where now the altar stands; and that hermit saw at dawn, on Sundays and on other days, many lights in that sycamore while the service was read in church. And the Holy Virgin appeared to him in his dream and told him to go to Prince Alexandru to tell him to make a monastery. And the

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<sup>37</sup> D.I.R., A, vol. XXI, p. 245, 246.



hermit went to Prince Alexandru and persuaded him to make Slatina Monastery on the place where the sycamore stood.”<sup>38</sup>

Wild pear-trees are frequently met in our forests. Their name is connected to Peri (34 homesteads) and Părul Rătundu in Teleorman county (R.P. p. 278), and Peretul (124 homesteads) in Olt county (R.P. p. 257), A Periș is found both in Ilfov county and in Transylvania.

The pine has suggested the name of several villages. High Steward Constantin Cantacuzino recorded a Pinul in Argeș county on his map<sup>39</sup>. The statistical map of 1835 mentions a Pinosa (90 homesteads) and the hamlet of Pinosa de Jos (5–20 homesteads) in Mehedinți county (R.P. p. 249). There is also a *La Pin* (28 homesteads) in Buzău county (R.P. p. 218).

In several counties of Wallachia and Moldavia there are place-names related to the poplar (*plop*). The 1835 map records Plopu, Plopi, (Plochi), Plopana, Plopeni, Plopiș, Plopeasa, Plopșoru (Mare, Mic)<sup>40</sup>.

*Răchita* (osier), a term of Slavic origin, is well represented in village names. There is a Răchita (76 (homesteads) in Mehedinți county (R.P. p. 249), Răchițelu de Jos and Răchițelu de Sus (78 homesteads each) in Argeș county (R.P. p. 211) and also Rechicioara (43 homesteads) in Olt county (R.P. p. 257). There are, moreover, Răchitoasa (148 homesteads) and Răchiteu (194 homesteads) in Tecuci county (R.P. p. 276), and also Răchitești (95 homesteads) in Roman county (p. 266). The name of a mountain in Vrancea, Răchitaș, should be compared with Ceraș, Făgăraș and Păltinaș.

A number of settlements bear the name of the willow (*salcie*). There is a Salcia (94 homesteads) in Olt county (R.P. p. 257) and another (69 homesteads) in Săcuieni county (R.P. 271). The High Steward recorded a Salcia in Buzău county<sup>41</sup>. Salciile is the name of a village of 154 homesteads in Ialomița county, while Salcii in Suceava county has 127 homesteads (R.P. p. 238, 273). The diminutive, Sălchioara, designated a village of 62 homesteads in Rîmnicul-Sărat county and another of 35 homesteads in Buzău county (R.P. p. 263, 219). Two villages of 104 and 27 homesteads, respectively in Dolj county, a village of 32 homesteads in Dimbovița county and one of 41 homesteads in Tecuci county, are called Sălciuța (R.P. p. 227, 224, 276).

<sup>38</sup> Neculce, *Chronicle of Moldavia*, p. 14.

<sup>39</sup> Giurescu, *Cantacuzino's Map*, p. 17.

<sup>40</sup> Giurescu, *Romanian Principalities*, p. 218, 224, 229, 232, 234, 249, 257, 259, 263, 270, 273, 276, 277, 280.

<sup>41</sup> Giurescu, *op. cit.*, p. 18.

It is from *soc*, the elder with sweet-scented white blossoms and healing properties that comes the name of Socet village, near Deva. A Socetul estate in Dimbovița county, which belonged to Mihai-Vodă Monastery, was leased on 20 April 1813 <sup>42</sup>.

Thorns (*spini*) are traced in the name of Spineni (89 homesteads) in Olt county (R.P. p. 257); Schineni (121 homesteads) in Fălciu county (R.P. p. 232), and Spinești in Vrancea Land. A village of 70 homesteads in Dolj county was named Spinet (R.P. p. 227).

The service tree (*Sorbus domestica*, or *scoruș* in Romanian) whose fruit is shaped like a small apple, has given its name to the village of *Scoruș* in Gorj county (R.P. p. 234).

Many place-names are derived from a well-known and beloved tree, widely spread throughout the country, the limetree (*tei*). There are places named *Teiș* (limetree grove) all over the Romanian territory, in Moldavia as well as in Transylvania <sup>43</sup>. *Teișani* was the name of a freeholders' village in the former Săcuieni county, today Prahova county, well known for its old salt mine. A document dated 7 September 1682 tells of the salt tithe at the mine, which was the due of Radu Vodă Monastery in Bucharest <sup>44</sup>.

Place-names derived from *ulm* (elm) also occur frequently on both sides of the Carpathians. A settlement in Dobruđa of the Daco-Roman period was called Ulmetum. We find several villages and landed estates named Ulmu, Ulmetu, Ulmiș, Ulmeni <sup>45</sup>.

Finally, we will name the village of Zmeuret (raspberry shrubs) in Vilcea county, which had 78 homesteads in 1835 (R.P. p. 286).

Forest big game is also present in place-names. We have already mentioned "Plaiul Bourilor" (The Aurochs Tableland) in what was formerly Putna county, and the derivatives Boureni and Boura. We would add "Căpățîna Zimbrului" (The Bison's Head) in Putna county again <sup>46</sup>, and numerous toponyms related to *Brebul* (*Castor fiber*) and to the wild ass (*colun*). From among the toponyms suggested by the stag (*cerb*), we have "Poiana Cerbului" in Rîmnicul-Sărat county, mentioned in a document of 7 August 1695 <sup>47</sup>, a Cerbul

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<sup>42</sup> State Archives, Bucharest, ms. 456, f. 209

<sup>43</sup> See *The Alphabetical Directory of the Localities in the Romanian People's Republic*, Bucharest, 1956, under *Teiș* and its derivatives.

<sup>44</sup> State Archives, Bucharest, ms. 256, f. 544.

<sup>45</sup> See *The Alphabetical Directory*, under *Ulmu* and its derivatives.

<sup>46</sup> Giurescu, Odobești, p. 28.

<sup>47</sup> State Archives, Bucharest, *Rîmnicul Sărat Monastery*, XIV/5.

estate mentioned in documents from 1760—1761<sup>48</sup>, and finally Mount Cerbul in the same county, mentioned in a document of 26 January 1762. From among toponyms suggested by the term *Lupu* (wolf), we will quote “Groapa Lupului” (Wolf Pit) on the territory of Chiojd commune (Buzău county), Lupeni, a mining town in Transylvania, Lupăria, Lupești and Lupeasca, villages now incorporated in Bucharest, etc.

To conclude this chapter, mention should be made of the 133 names of streets, boulevards, roads, alleys and market places in Bucharest, which bring in mind the forest, its trees, glades, game, fruit and keepers<sup>49</sup>.

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<sup>48</sup> *Ibidem*, XV/21, 22.

<sup>49</sup> *Bucharest Street Guide*, Bucharest, 1970.



## FORESTS AND NAMES OF PERSONS

*A great many personal names are related to forests, either directly or through the medium of place-names.*

The Romanians lived in the forest or near it, used forest wood to make their houses, tools and weapons, fed in forest game and fruit, took shelter in the forest in times of trouble, and fought battles in its shelter. It is but natural that the great and so diverse reality which is the forest should have set its seal on person's names. We may divide people's names into nine categories as they are related to (1) the generic terms for forests; (2) the tree and its component parts; (3) the different tree species; (4) man-made clearings, either by tree felling or by setting fire to the tree; (5) preserve forests; (6) forest fruit; (7) objects made of wood; (8) forest game of every description; (9) various woodworking crafts.

We do not intend to give a dictionary of names having references to forests; we will confine ourselves to illustrate each of the afore-mentioned categories, laying stress on names of historic importance.

1. *Bunget* (thick old forest) occurs only in the family name Bungețeanu. In exchange the term *codru* (high forest) has been adopted for a great many names. We think of the Transylvanian traveller and writer Codru Drăgușanu, who has left a remarkable travel diary and of Theodor Codrescu who, more than a century ago, compiled a valuable collection of documents (*Uricariul*). The name of Codreanu is borne by a Iași poet and by a renowned biologist who is a member of the Romanian Academy. There is also a diminutive: Codruț, Codruța and many variants such as Codrea and Codreș. On 4 October 1453, Prince Vladislav II of Wallachia confirmed the title of Stanciul Dijanul to his possessions, among which the part of Codrea of Dijani<sup>1</sup>; and on 10 March 1567, Codreș, "small scribe," wrote a document confirming the title to an estate

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<sup>1</sup> D.R.H., B, I, p. 195.

in the village of Brătuia in Gorj county <sup>2</sup>. From *crîng* (grove) comes the family name of Crîngu and Crîngan. One Ion Crîngan is mentioned in the manuscript obituary of Bordenii Mici church in Prahova county. *Dumbravă* (riverside coppice) occurs in a Moldavian document of 7 July 1430 concerning the village of Dvoriște "where Dumbravă's mansion once stood." <sup>3</sup> Later that village (in Botoșani county) was named Dumbrăveni. Dumbravă was also the name of a councillor of Prince John the Brave (1572–1574), who caught and cut down an enemy detachment, contributing to the victory at Jiliște over the Turks. A document of 20 May 1612 records one "Dumbravă with his son Tudoran" <sup>4</sup> among the serfs of the village of Pleșovul de Sus and de Jos, belonging to Governor Preda and to his wife, Florica, daughter of Michael the Brave. We mention also the pen-name of Bucura Dumbravă who authored the novels *The Pandour* and *The Outlaw*. The derivative Dumbrăveanul may have been formed from the place-name Dumbrăveni. Halunga, from a Slavic term meaning "bush," <sup>5</sup> is a less frequent name. There is one Halănga in Oltenia <sup>6</sup>, and also a Halînga, slave of Chamberlain Ivan and of Marga of Caracal, mentioned in a document dated 30 April 1581 <sup>7</sup>. From *heci* (thick grove), the name of Heci is derived, mentioned at the time of Stephen the Great <sup>8</sup>. *Luncă* (riverside wood) is the name of a villager of Ulmeni in Buzău county <sup>9</sup>. One Ion Lunca lived in Transylvania <sup>10</sup>. *Sihla* (impenetrable thick wood) accounts for the name of the poet Sihleanu, and *zăvoi* (riverside coppice) for the name of Zăvoianu. A Wallachian document dated 20 April 1622 shows that one Zăvoiu had bought an estate at Cîinești (Vlașca county), paying 1,650 aspers for it. <sup>11</sup> And there was also one Maria Zăvoae in the village of Ciolănești (Cîrligătura county) in 1823 <sup>12</sup>.

2. *Arbore* (tree) is a frequent Romanian name, beginning with the famous family of Moldavian dignitaries in the time of Stephen the Great and his descendants, up to the scholar Zamfir

<sup>2</sup> Ștefulescu, *Slavo-Romanian Documents*, p. 159–160.

<sup>3</sup> Costăchescu, *Moldavian Documents*, p. 299.

<sup>4</sup> D.I.R., B, XVII, vol. II, p. 77–78.

<sup>5</sup> N. A. Constantinescu, *Romanian Dictionary of Names*, Bucharest, 1936, p. 292.

<sup>6</sup> *Bulletin of Romania's Historic Commission*, vol. XV, p. 152.

<sup>7</sup> D.I.R., B, XVI, vol. V, p. 19.

<sup>8</sup> Costăchescu, *Moldavian Documents from Stephen the Great*, Iași, 1933, Index.

<sup>9</sup> Gh. Nestor, *A Monograph of the Ulmeni Commune*, Buzău, 1938, p. 133.

<sup>10</sup> Șt. Meteș, *Agrarian and Economic Life of the Transylvanian Romanians*, I, 1508–1820, p. 70.

<sup>11</sup> D.I.R., B, XVII, vol. IV, p. 107.

<sup>12</sup> Gh. Ghibănescu, *Abstracts and Documents*, vol. XIII, p. 67.

Arbore. The same applies to *copac* (tree). We find it slightly altered as Copaciu in Moldavia<sup>13</sup> and in Transylvania in 1726<sup>14</sup> and as Copaci in Wallachia<sup>15</sup> and in Moldavia<sup>16</sup>. Other forms also occur: Copacea in the Olt Land (Făgăraş) in 1688<sup>17</sup>, Copăcean and Copăcel in Wallachia in the 16th century<sup>18</sup>. *Lemn* (wood) has become a family name in the form of Lemnea: a street in Bucharest bears the name of Lieutenant Dumitru Lemnea fallen in the War of Independence. Likewise, *creangă* (branch) is a well-known family name: Ion Creangă was a great writer. From *frunză* (leaf) a number of names are derived. Frunză is often met with in Moldavia<sup>19</sup>, the same as Frunzălată<sup>20</sup>. There is also a place-name, probably derived from a person's name: Frunzu<sup>21</sup>. We mention: Frunzescu (author of a valuable topographic dictionary which came out in 1872), Frunzete or Frunzetti (an art critic and historian). Frunzănescu is derived from the village name Frunzăneşti. *Cetina* (fir branches) is also encountered as a name. Documents record a man<sup>22</sup> and a woman by this name<sup>23</sup>. Cetinoiu is found as well<sup>24</sup>.

3. Personal names related to the various tree species are very numerous. We will give a list in alphabetical order: Alunescu comes from *alun* (hazel tree) and is found in Oltenia<sup>25</sup>. Arăreanu from *arar* (maple) was an inhabitant of the Arăreni village. The name of the fir (*brad*), whose significance for the most important moments of a man's life has been already shown, is the most productive in this category. There is the poet Ion Brad. The diminutive Brăduţ is the first name of the painter Brăduţ Covaliu. A Brădel was mentioned in a document dating from 1348<sup>26</sup>. We should add the augmentatives Brădean and Brădilă<sup>27</sup>, and the feminine Brădoia<sup>28</sup>. Brădescu

<sup>13</sup> Iorga, *Studies and Documents*, XI, p. 87.

<sup>14</sup> Şt. Paşca, *Names of Persons and Animals in the Olt Land*, Bucharest, 1936, p. 215.

<sup>15</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVII, vol. II, p. 50; Aurelian Sacerdoţeanu, *Obituary of the Gruşefu Monastery*, in "Arhivele Olteniei," XII (1933), p. 18.

<sup>16</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XVI, vol. III, p. 229.

<sup>17</sup> Şt. Paşca, *op. cit.*, p. 215.

<sup>18</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVI, vol. IV, p. 314.

<sup>19</sup> T. Bălan, *Bucovina Documents*, VI, p. 176, 191, 245, 375—378, etc.

<sup>20</sup> Gh. Ghibănescu, *Charters and Deeds*, VI, 2, p. 60, 61, 115.

<sup>21</sup> Iorga, *op. cit.*, XXI, p. 61.

<sup>22</sup> *Ibidem*, XVI, p. 157.

<sup>23</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVII, vol. IV, p. 532.

<sup>24</sup> "Revista Istorică," V, p. 225.

<sup>25</sup> "Arhivele Olteniei," XXII, p. 130.

<sup>26</sup> "Arhiva istorică," III, p. 85.

<sup>27</sup> See *D.I.R.*, B, XVI, vol. IV and p. 410, and *D.I.R.*, B, XVII, vol. III, p. 382

<sup>28</sup> Iorga, *op. cit.*, VII, p. 295, No. 43.



is a name well-known in Oltenia. During the reign of Matei Basarab, Barbu Brădescu was one of the great dignitaries and warriors of the Prince <sup>29</sup>. Brădiceanu and Brediceanu ( well-known family in Banat) derived their name from the village of Brădiceni <sup>30</sup>. The names Brădăţeanu and Brădiţeanu fall into the same category. We would add some names which are not so common: Bradici <sup>31</sup>, Brăduşcă <sup>32</sup> and Bradosu <sup>33</sup>. Brădici occurs especially among the Romanians in the Balkan Peninsula, alongside the forms Brader and Bradel <sup>34</sup>, while Bradea occurs in the Apuseni Mountains <sup>35</sup>. *Carpen* (horn-beam) is found in the name of the academician Vasilescu-Carpen and in the collective noun *cărpiniş*. One Stanciul Cărpeniş is recorded in a document of 1620 <sup>36</sup>; there is also a family Cărpinişan. *Călin* (guelder rose) is used as first name, having also a feminine form, Călina. As I surmised, the family name of Ion Catina, poet and revolutionary of 1848, was actually Cătină, after the name of a shrub (*Hippophae rhamnoides*). The place name found in 16th century documents in the form of Cătinaş or Cătiaş resulted in the name of Cătiişanu or Cătieşanu. *Corn* (*Cornus mas*) is also present in the onomasticon. We find a Cornea in the Olt Land <sup>37</sup>, a Cornei in Oltenia in 1437 <sup>38</sup>, a Corneş, listed in the obituary of Govora Monastery <sup>39</sup> during the reign of Radu de la Afumaţi, and a Cornescu as Constantin Brâncoveanu's Court Marshal. In the 19th century, a Cornescu wrote a treaty of venery. *Fag* (beech) has also been a frequent family name; there is a Transylvanian Ion Fagu in a document dated 1760 <sup>40</sup> while Iana Fagu of Tirgovişte is mentioned in a document dated 9 April 1588 <sup>41</sup>. From the collective *făget* (beech grove), the name of Făgeţeanu was formed. The collective noun, Făgăraş, is the name of a Wallachian boyar who lived during the reigns of Mircea Ciobanul and Petre the Young, as shown by a document dated

<sup>29</sup> See "Arhivele Olteniei," XVII (1938), p. 306 and the Wallachian Chronicles

<sup>30</sup> See Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, III, 2, p. 526 and 583.

<sup>31</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XVI, vol. I, p. 439.

<sup>32</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVI, vol. V, p. 76.

<sup>33</sup> "Buletinul Societăţii de Geografie," LIII, p. 157.

<sup>34</sup> Silviu Dragomir, *The Vlachs of the Balkan Peninsula during the Middle Ages*, Bucharest, 1959, p. 67, 110, 150, 159.

<sup>35</sup> T. Frincu and G. Candrea, *The Romanians of the Apuseni Mountains*, 1888, p. 117.

<sup>36</sup> "Anuarul Institutului de Istorie şi Arheologie Cluj," VI, p. 492.

<sup>37</sup> Şt. Paşca, *op. cit.*, p. 216.

<sup>38</sup> "Arhivele Olteniei," XVII, p. 289.

<sup>39</sup> Aurelian Sacerdoţeanu, *Obituary of the Govora Monastery*, in "Mitropolia Olteniei," XIII, No. 10-12, p. 806.

<sup>40</sup> N.A. Constantinescu, *op. cit.*, p. 271.

<sup>41</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVI, vol. V, p. 352.

10 March 1560 <sup>42</sup>, as well as of a priest who lived in Bucovina in 1632 <sup>43</sup>. The diminutive *făgețel* (small beech grove) was the cognomen of a Craiova publisher, Șaban-Făgețel. *Frasin* (ash-tree) is met both as first name — a Transylvanian Frasin Moșchiuca <sup>44</sup> and Frasin Munteanu-Rimnic — and also in family names: Frăsineanu from the village of Frăsineni. *Gorun* (durmast oak) has been often used as a name. We come across a Gorun, son of Cernica of Isvoare (Olt county) in a document dated 1533 <sup>45</sup>, and also a Dima Gorun who, jointly with his nephew Vătașu, sold some land at Mircești (Buzău county) <sup>46</sup>, and finally Gorun of Dridif, a Făgăraș nobleman <sup>47</sup>. In a period very near to our own, we find the writer Ion Gorun. The family name Gorneanu, contracted from Goruneanu, is derived from Goruneni, a place-name related to *gorun*. *Mălin* (bird cherry) is not left out of the onomasticon. One Mălin Roșu of Drajna (Prahova county) is mentioned in a document dated 1670 <sup>48</sup>, and a Moldavian lady named Mălina exchanged her estate for another on 4 January 1523 <sup>49</sup>. Furthermore, there is Mălinescu, a revolutionary of 1848 and a fighter for the Union of the two Romanian Principalities, and also Mălineanu, a contemporary composer of light music. As for *paltin* (sycamore), we should note the names Paltin <sup>50</sup> and Pâlte and the derivatives Păltinea and Păltineanu. As to the *plop* (poplar), one "Vasilie Plop" witnessed a sale at Hăsnășeni (Vaslui county) on 1 April 1617 <sup>51</sup>, and a "Balea Plopăscul" was mentioned in a Moldavian document dated 20 February 1518 <sup>52</sup>. There is also a family name Plopeanu. *Salcia* (willow) has also been used as a name: in a document dated 30 March 1638, one "Costea, son of Salce" is mentioned as residing at Curtea de Argeș <sup>53</sup>. Moreover, "the loyalty of His Highness Ion Salce, Swordbearer," is recalled in a Moldavian document dated March 21 1551 <sup>54</sup>. *Sînger* (dogwood) is the name of a Moldavian boyar of the 15th century <sup>55</sup> and there is also Grui Singer

<sup>42</sup> D.I.R., B, XVI, vol. III, p. 112.

<sup>43</sup> T. Bălan, *Bucovina Documents*, vol. II, p. 144.

<sup>44</sup> N.A. Constantinescu, *op. cit.*, p. 433.

<sup>45</sup> D.I.R., B, XVI, vol. II, p. 138.

<sup>46</sup> *Ibidem*, vol. XXIII, p. 589.

<sup>47</sup> Șt. Pașca, *op. cit.*, p. 247.

<sup>48</sup> "Bul. Com. Ist.," vol. XIII, p. 183.

<sup>49</sup> D.I.R., A, XIV, vol. I, p. 216.

<sup>50</sup> N.A. Constantinescu, *op. cit.*, p. 451.

<sup>51</sup> D.I.R., A, XVII, vol. IV, p. 128.

<sup>52</sup> D.I.R., A, XVI, vol. I, p. 121.

<sup>53</sup> Constantin Giurescu, *Studies of Social History*, Bucharest, 1943, p. 91.

<sup>54</sup> D.I.R., A, XVI, vol. II, p. 3.

<sup>55</sup> N.A. Constantinescu, *op. cit.*, p. 458.

in a folk ballad. *Tisa* (yew) is also well represented in the onomasticon. In Transylvania men are named *Tis*<sup>56</sup> and *Tisu*<sup>57</sup>; there is also a *Tisău* family-name in Prahova and Buzău counties, and a *Tisescu* family in Bucharest. *Tufa* (*Quercus pubescens*) is the name of a freeholder in Șendreni village who, jointly with others, sold half the village<sup>58</sup>. Another freeholder, Ion Tufeș of the village of Dzemeșești, is mentioned in a document dated March 8, 1617<sup>59</sup>. It is from *tufă* that the surname *Tufescu* was formed, and a well-known Romanian geographer is Victor Tufescu. *Ulm* (elm) is used as a first name, as shown by a document dated 1644, which mentions one *Ulmul*<sup>60</sup>. The feminine *Ulma* was also used in Banat in the early Middle Ages (1232), as well as in Bucovina<sup>61</sup>. The cognomen of *Popescu-Ulmu* is to be accounted for by reference to *Ulm* village. The *Ulmeanu* family must have come from *Ulmeni*, a village between Mizil and Buzău. On the other hand, *Ulmăciu* — the name of a villager mentioned in February 1808<sup>62</sup> — is derived from the name of the tree. *Zadă* (*Larix decidua* or larch) suggested the name of *Zadul*, found in Moldavia in the first half of the 18th century<sup>63</sup> and especially in the Fălticeni region<sup>64</sup>.

4. *Poiana* (glade, clearing) has a considerable contribution to the onomasticon. We find one *Gavril Poiană* in Moldavia in the 16th century<sup>65</sup> and a *Mihul Poiană* in the 17th century<sup>66</sup>. With a different spelling — *Poeană* —, the name occurs before the reign of Stephen the Great<sup>67</sup>. There are many people named *Poenaru*. We will mention only *Petrache Poenaru*, organizer of the Romanian educational system during the period of the *Règlement Organique*, and *Colonel Poenaru-Bordea*, the first senior officer to fall in the war for the Union of all the Romanian provinces, in August 1916. *Runc* (clearing, glade from Lat. *runcus*) is found in the name of *Ioan*

<sup>56</sup> Iorga, *Writings and Inscriptions of Transylvania and Maramureș*, vol. II, Bucharest, 1906, p. 191.

<sup>57</sup> T. Frincu and G. Candrea, *op. cit.*, p. 120.

<sup>58</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XVII, vol. V, p. 332.

<sup>59</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XVII, vol. IV, p. 106.

<sup>60</sup> Damian Bogdan, *Glossary of Romanian Words in Slavo-Romanian Documents*, Bucharest, 1946, *sub voce*.

<sup>61</sup> N. Drăgan, *The Romanians in the 9th—14th Centuries, Relying on Toponymy and Onomatology*, Bucharest, 1933, p. 163.

<sup>62</sup> Sava, *Putna Documents*, p. 160.

<sup>63</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XVII, vol. V, p. 228 and 309.

<sup>64</sup> N.A. Constantinescu, *op. cit.*, p. 468.

<sup>65</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XVI, XVII, vol. III., p. 9.

<sup>66</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XVII, vol. II, p. 233.

<sup>67</sup> Costăchescu, *Moldavian Documents*, vol. I, p. 321, 502; vol. II, p. 41, 43, 362, 364, 477.



Runcu in the Apuseni Mountains <sup>68</sup> and in the derivative Runcan. It is from *laz* (clearing/glade — a word of Slavic origin) that the surname Lăzeanu is derived. Is referred to the inhabitants of the numerous Laz or Lazul villages in the different regions of the Carpatho-Danubian territory. Another term for clearing/glade in Romanian is *oaș*. We find Oașu as a man's name in Transylvania <sup>69</sup> and also in Moldavia, where it is altered to Oașea: a document dated 8 April 1584 mentions Anesia, daughter to Oașea and granddaughter to Oașea the elder <sup>70</sup>. "Oșan" is an inhabitant of the Oaș Land. There is a proverb which is significant for the character of the people of the Oaș Land: "Beware of challenging the man of Oaș; always rely on the Oaș woman." <sup>71</sup>

5. The *braniște* or preserve land appears in Romanian names either in the form a cognomen — viz. Tudor Teodorescu-Braniște — or as a derivative: Brănișteanu. Brănișteri (preserve guards) is a surname often met with in Moldavia as well as in Wallachia.

6. Forest products also contribute to the Romanian onomasticon. *Ghinda* (acorn) designates both a man (Ghinda of Climești (Neamț county) mentioned in a document of 30 March 1558) and a woman ("Nistor and his sister Ghinda and his other sister Bisurca" mentioned in a document of 18 April 1558) <sup>72</sup>. On 4 September 1580, "Sima, son of Salomia and grandson of Ghinda" makes an exchange of land <sup>73</sup>. *Mura* (blackberry) is found as a first name. From *zmeura* (raspberry) comes the name of a family in Bucharest, Zmeureanu and *Bureți* (forest mushrooms) give the names Burețe and Burețea. We have come across one Voicu Burețea in Brașov <sup>74</sup> and Gheorghe Burețea in Oltenia <sup>75</sup>. Another Romanian term for mushroom, *ciupercă*, is found in the surname Ciupercă. In the 1773–1774 census registers of Olt and Argeș counties, the surname *Rășină* (resin) is to be found <sup>76</sup>.

7. A great many persons borrowed their names from objects made by man out of wood: *Bărbînță* (wooden firkin for cheese or

<sup>68</sup> T. Frincu and G. Candrea, *op. cit.*, p. 119.

<sup>69</sup> Iorga, *Writings and Inscriptions of Transylvania and Maramureș*, vol. II, 1906, p. 40.

<sup>70</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XVI, vol. III, p. 244.

<sup>71</sup> N.A. Constantinescu, *op. cit.*, p. 337.

<sup>72</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XVI, vol. II, p. 104, 117.

<sup>73</sup> *Ibidem*, vol. III, p. 146.

<sup>74</sup> "Revista Istorică," IX (1923), p. 104.

<sup>75</sup> "Arhivele Olteniei," IX, p. 198.

<sup>76</sup> I. Ionașcu, *On the Olt and Argeș Counties in the Census of 1773–1774*, Moscow, Bucharest, 1958, p. 9.

honey); *Butoi* (cask); *Bute* (brandy puncheon of some 1000 l)<sup>77</sup>; *Bîță* (club); *Beldie* (pole), *Jordie* (rod), *Harag* or *Harac* (vine prop) and *Ciomag* (cudgel). Cudgels made of cornel or oak wood were often used as weapons of defence. *Baltag* falls in the same category: it was a kind of club with an axe at one end and sometimes with a sharp iron tip. *Măciucă* (bludgeon) is also a name frequently met in Wallachia in the 16th and 17th centuries<sup>78</sup>, and in Moldavia before Stephen the Great<sup>79</sup>; the surname Măciucescu is also derived from it. From *grindă* (beam), the name Grindeș was formed, which we come across at the end of the 16th century<sup>80</sup>. We also find the surname Talpă: one Lupu Talpă, Cup-bearer is mentioned in 1628<sup>81</sup>. The name may have been suggested by the thick, heavy planks on which houses were built. *Cărbune* (charcoal) is found in a deed of November 1613 as the name of a freeholder in Bîrca village<sup>82</sup>. A document of March 3 1548 shows that one Ion Cărbune was among "the prince's servants."<sup>83</sup> We have also found the feminine Cărbuna in a document of the year 1605 concerning the village of Brăgărești<sup>84</sup>. We should moreover add the name of *Cenușe* (ash), suggestive of ashes resulting either from the burning of fuelwood or from potash manufacture.

8. Forest game has made a considerable contribution to the Romanian onomasticon: the names of the bear, wolf, stag, fox, hare, marten, beaver, otter and badger are all used for persons. This is to be accounted for by age-old belief dating from mankind's primeval ages, that one can more easily hunt a beast by taking its name. Another old tradition says that the wild beast will not harm you or your cattle, but on the contrary, will assist you if you bear its name. *Ursu* (bear), *Lupu* (wolf) and *Vulpe* (fox) are frequently met with in old documents both in the masculine and in the feminine. "Ursa, wife to Moțoc of Odobești" founded, together with her husband, Miera Monastery in the Milcov Valley, which became a princely monastery during Constantin Cantemir's reign<sup>85</sup>. Ursoaia is met with as a Romanian name in Slavo-Romanian docu-

<sup>77</sup> Giurescu, *Odobești*, p. 117.

<sup>78</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVI, vol. II, p. 213 and XVII B, vol. II, p. 148 and passim. One Măclucul is mentioned in *D.I.R.*, B, XVII, vol. I, p. 55.

<sup>79</sup> Costăchescu, *Moldavian Documents*, vol. II, p. 52, 53, 57.

<sup>80</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVI, vol. V, p. 38.

<sup>81</sup> Damian Bogdan, *op. cit.*, under *Talpă*.

<sup>82</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVII, vol. II, p. 228.

<sup>83</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XVI, vol. I, p. 560.

<sup>84</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVII, vol. I, p. 168.

<sup>85</sup> Sava, *op. cit.*, I, p. 29.

ments<sup>86</sup>. "Ursu" occurs frequently in Wallachian, as well as in Moldavian and Transylvanian documents. The actual name of Horea, the head of the peasant's uprising of 1784 was Vasile Nicola Ursu. In Moldavia there was a very rich boyar named Ursachi, whom Prince Duca ruined<sup>87</sup> and one, Ursachi Dumitraşco was High Steward under Prince Mihai Racoviţă<sup>88</sup>. In Oltenia, one Ursul, son of Mone, is mentioned in a document of 1614<sup>89</sup>. Derived forms are also found: Ursan, the prince's torch supplier in Iaşi in 1629<sup>90</sup>; Ursoiu, with an augmentative suffix; and the diminutives Ursuleţ, Ursuliţă, Ursuţu and Ursei<sup>91</sup>. Ursăscu (Ursescu) and Urseanu are surnames<sup>92</sup> and so is Ursuleac (there was a singer by that name). The great number of variants — and we have not given them all — shows the important place held in the country's onomasticon by the bear, the biggest and strongest animal hunted in Romania's forests, barring the aurochs and the bison, who were becoming rare even in the past.

"Lupu" was just as usual, and so was the feminine Lupa, which, however, is also found for men. Thus, at Slatina on May 23 1534 Prince Vlad confirmed the title of "Bărbulea and Lupa" to their old, rightfully held estate at Studina<sup>93</sup>. Another form, Lupea, is also a masculine name, proof of which is "Lupea Huru, Governor of Hotin," at the time of Prince John the Brave<sup>94</sup>. The name of Vasile Lupu, the pomp-loving prince of Moldavia, founder of Three Hierarchs' Church, is well known. In 1613, one "Lupul Mălăiu" wrote to the Bistriţa people communicating news from Moldavia<sup>95</sup>. Lupoiu and Lupău have an augmentative meaning; the feminine is Lupoia. Lupan, Lupuşor (Lupşor) and Lupuţ are diminutives. Other forms are: Lupaş, the name of a well-known history professor; Lupeş, occurring in a 16th century document<sup>96</sup>; and also Lupşa, Lupşe, with the diminutive Lupşel<sup>97</sup>. The Slavic for "wolf" *vîlc*, gave Vîlcu, with the feminine Vîlca (Vlaca), also

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<sup>86</sup> Damian Bogdan, *op. cit.*, *sub voce*.

<sup>87</sup> Neculce, *Chronicle of Moldavia*, p. 43 and 81.

<sup>88</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 114, 156 and 170.

<sup>89</sup> Iorga, *Studies and Documents*, VI, p. 4623.

<sup>90</sup> *Ibidem*, V, p. 94, No. 84.

<sup>91</sup> N.A. Constantinescu, *op. cit.*, p. 401.

<sup>92</sup> Iorga, *Papers from the Archives of the Hurez Monastery*, Bucharest, 1907, p. 124.

<sup>93</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVI, vol. II, p. 161.

<sup>94</sup> Iorga, *Studies and Documents*, V, p. 4—5.

<sup>95</sup> Iorga, *Bistriţa*, p. 33.

<sup>96</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XVI, vol. II, p. 18.

<sup>97</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVI, vol. VI, p. 337.



used for men<sup>98</sup>. Vilcan is often found in a number of documents dating from the time of Mircea the Old and of his descendants<sup>99</sup> or in a document dated March 30 1638<sup>100</sup>. The form Vilcu has persisted to our days. We have not given all the forms and variants related to the wolf, but we would point out that this strong, nimble and cruel animal has considerably influenced Romanian given names. This also holds good for the fox. There are: *Vulpe* and its variants, *Hulpe*, *Vulpoi*, the augmentative *Vulpan*, the diminutive *Vulpaș*, and *Vulpescu*. As examples, we will quote Filipescu-Vulpe, High Treasurer at the time of Tudor Vladimirescu and of the first Romanian ruling prince after the Phanariot period; and Radu Vulpe, archaeologist and historian. "Manea Vulpar," which occurs in a document dated 26 July 1526<sup>101</sup>, shows that the man bearing the name was a proficient fox hunter.

In the Romanian onomasticon we also find the names of castor (Brebu), the primeval elk (Plotun) and of the marten (Jder). On May 18 1443, Prince Ștefan, son of Alexander the Good confirmed the title of his servant Ștefan Brebu to a village on the Iadrici brook<sup>102</sup>. There is also a diminutive, Brebenel. The form Breban has persisted to date. The name of Tatul Plotun is recorded in the 16th century<sup>103</sup>, and the village of Plotunești is mentioned in a document dating from 1619, before December 17<sup>104</sup>. Documents also speak of Jderca and Stanciul who, on April 18 1590, sold a vineyard for 1800 aspers<sup>105</sup>.

*Iepure* (hare) has also been used as a name by a number of people in Moldavia, Wallachia and Transylvania. We find one Epure in Birlad county<sup>106</sup>. In Epureni village was born the politician Manolache Costache Epureanu. Another derivative is Epurescu, the name of the owner of a well-known Bucharest restaurant at the beginning of this century.

*Șoimaru* was originally the name of one proficient in catching hawks for the hunts of the local prince or of the Sultan. Thus, for example, "Mihaiu Șoimariul of Săteni," who, according to a document of 23 April 1630, had lived "in the days of Prince Radu," i.e. of

<sup>98</sup> Const. Giurescu, *Studies of Social History*, p. 90.

<sup>99</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, vol. I, p. 32, 55, 98, 100.

<sup>100</sup> Const. Giurescu, *op. cit.*, p. 90, in the form of "Vlăcan."

<sup>101</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, vol. II, p. 26.

<sup>102</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, XIV—XV, p. 190—191.

<sup>103</sup> N.A. Constantinescu, *op. cit.*, p. 350.

<sup>104</sup> *D.I.R.*, A, 17th century, vol. IV, p. 414.

<sup>105</sup> *D.I.R.*, B, XVI, vol. V, p. 440.

<sup>106</sup> I. Antonovici, *Birlad Documents*, I, 1911, index.

Radu Șerban (1602—1611) or Radu Mihnea (1611—1616 and 1620—1623)<sup>107</sup>.

*Veveriță* (squirrel) was a great Moldavian dignitary during the reign of Alexandru Lăpușneanu. There were also people called *Viezure* or *Bursuc* (badger).

9. The last category of surnames suggested by the forest consist of the names of woodworkers and of forest keeper. The latter class includes such surnames as *Păduraru* (forester), while the common name for a woodworker is *Lemnaru*; the man using the axe (*bardă* in Romanian) is *Bărdașu* and the man using the adze (*teslă*) is *Teslaru*. The craftsman who makes hogsheads (*butii*) or casks (*butoaie*) is named *Butnaru*; the man who makes staves (*doage*) is named *Dogaru*, and the man who makes wooden platters (*blide*) is named *Blidaru*. We come across a name such as *Căruceru*, assumed by the craftsman who makes waggon (care) or carts (*căruțe*), just as a man proficient in making wheels (*roți*) bears the name of *Rotaru*, and the man who makes shingles (*șindrilă*) is named *Șindilaru* or *Șindrilaru*. We should further mention *Ulieru*, the man who makes bee-hives (*uleie*); in *Ulierului* Street in Bucharest, *Librecht*, head of the telegraph and postal departments under Prince Cuza, bought land where he built his house — impressive at the time —, now the University Club. To conclude, we will mention *Rășinaru*, the man who tapped first for resin and collected it in fir bark horns. The maker of poles (*rude*) is *Rudaru*. From troughs (*albi*), and kneading troughs (*copăi*), come the names *Albieru* and *Copăieru*.

As a conclusion, we may state that forests in all their aspects exercised a remarkable influence on names of persons, the same as on place-names.

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<sup>107</sup> *D.R.H.*, B, vol. XXIII, p. 160.

## FORESTS AND HERALDRY

*The influence of the forest is found to be potent also in heraldry.*

It is but natural that forest and greenwood, so extensive once and so rich in game, should be mirrored also in the armorial bearings of the Romanian countries, counties and towns, and in their seals.

It is significant that the main charge on Moldavia's arms should be an aurochs' head, the most important animal hunted in the country's forests and the prince's choice game. We find it on the oldest seals from the mid-15th century, bearing a star between its horns, a sun on the dexter side, a crescent on the sinister side<sup>1</sup>. The tradition about the foundation of Moldavia has been preserved in the old chronicles of Bistrița and Putna. According to the Bistrița anonymous chronicle: "In the year 6967 (1359) Prince Dragoș came... from Maramureș to hunt an aurochs, and he reigned for two years."<sup>2</sup> The Putna chronicle's record is not much different: "Prince Dragoș came... from Maramureș, ahunting an aurochs and he reigned for two years."<sup>3</sup> A more detailed account occurs in the Moldo-Russian chronicle: "There was a wise and brave man, Dragoș by name, and he went with his warriors to hunt wild beasts, and beyond the high mountains they found the trail of an aurochs and they chased it over the high mountains and crossed high tablelands... and trailing the aurochs they reached a beautiful flat country and being on horseback, they tracked the aurochs down to a river, on a bank under a willow, and they killed it, and they feasted on their game... and they all decided to remain there." And they chose Dragoș as "their ruler and prince and this was the beginning of Moldavia, with God's will. And Prince Dragoș founded the first town on the river Moldova, and afterwards... also other towns on the rivers and at the spring-heads. And he made a princely

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<sup>1</sup> C. Moisil, *Romania's Arms*, in *Romania's Encyclopaedia*, I, p. 62.

<sup>2</sup> *Slavo-Romanian Chronicles*, p. 6 and 14.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 43, 48.



seal for the whole country with the aurochs' head. And hereigned as a pince for two years." <sup>4</sup> Over and above the foregoing accounts, chronicler Ureche adds in his foreword that the aurochs was pursued with hounds and with a bitch named Molda, which bitch died with so much running. The place where the beast was killed was called "Bourenii" and for the seal of the country an aurochs' head was chosen <sup>5</sup>.

The tradition of Dragoș's hunt being recorded in all the old Moldavian chronicles, proves, in our opinion, that the hunt did take place, that Dragoș did hunt the aurochs during a raid against the Tartars or on another occasion, previous or subsequent to the raid. The old shield of the town of Baia shows a stag bearing St. Hubert's cross between its horns. The seal, dating from the early 14th century or even the late 13th century, has a Latin inscription in Gothic letters : *Sigillum capitalis civitatis Moldaviae terre Moldaviensis*. The tradition concerning the foundation of Baia mentioned a stag hunt. A parallel can be drawn between the arms of Moldavia, which were decided upon after Dragoș's hunt, and the arms of Baia, decided upon after a similar hunt by the founders of the town. The arms of Baia, which seem to be of older date, may even have suggested those of Moldavia <sup>6</sup>.

The shield of Roman, an old town prior to the foundation of the Moldavian state, has also a wild animal of the forests as main charge ; it is the head of a wild boar with long tusks <sup>7</sup>. The inscription is again Latin : *Sigillum/civicum de foro Romani*. The arms of Moldavia, of Baia and Roman stand proof to the wealth of big game in 14th century Moldavia.

The shield of the town of Piatra Neamț bears an animal which could be a male chamois or a roebuck <sup>8</sup>. Is this again an allusion to the foundation of the town ?

The small seal of the town of Satu Mare in Transylvania, mentioned in a document dated 1323, has "some roebucks" on a round shield, while on the seal of Lipova, dating from the early 15th century, we find among other charges a "wolf-like beast." <sup>9</sup> The arms of Brașov show a crown above a tree trunk with visible

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<sup>4</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 156, 159—160.

<sup>5</sup> *Chronicle of Moldavia* p. 6.

<sup>6</sup> See in this connection Emil Virtosu, *Seals of Moldavia and Wallachia*, in *D.I.R. Introduction*, vol. II, Bucharest, 1956, p. 53, 459, 465, 549.

<sup>7</sup> Giurescu, *Boroughs*, p. 69.

<sup>8</sup> Emil Virtosu, *op. cit.*, p. 478 ; Giurescu, *op. cit.*, p. 261.

<sup>9</sup> S. Jakó, *Sigillography with Reference of Transylvania — up to the Close of the 15th Century*, in *D.I.R., Introduction*, vol. II, p. 615, 617.

roots, possibly a symbol of the clearing activities carried on by the Saxons who settled in those parts in the 13th century among the Romanian population<sup>10</sup>.

Old shields of arms of Moldavian counties were reproduced in Prince Mihai Suțu's great seal of 1819<sup>11</sup>. For Suceava, three firs were the main charge, calling to mind the coniferous forests of the county. The shield of Neamț county shows a roebuck, like that of Piatra Neamț, its capital.

As for Wallachian counties<sup>12</sup>, Vilcea shows a tree on its arms, pointing to the wealth of forests of the county, with over 200,000 hectares of coniferous and deciduous trees in the Lotru basin alone.

The arms of Bacău, with "rocks and firs" and those of its main town Bacău, with "a fir forest and a stag" belong to the same period as those of Vilcea; the end of the 19th century and the beginning of 20th century.

Charges bound up with forests and with game are also common on the arms of the families of the ruling princes and of some great dignitaries. Thus, the shield of the Cantemir princes bears on its "first quarter an aurochs' head sable on a silver field, with a six-pointed star between its horns" and "on its third quarter... a black eagle on a green branch."<sup>13</sup>

The Advisory Heraldic Commission set up by the law of 23 June 1921 which established the coat of arms of Romania, decided upon the shields of the various counties and towns during the 1922 — 1936 interval, always taking the old arms into account<sup>14</sup>. Charges bound up with forests and game were preserved. Thus, the Vlașca county shield shows three oak-trees with visible roots on an azure field; Muscel county had an eagle "standing on a leafy oak branch with acorns"; Gorj county — a golden stag on an azure field; Neamț county — a chamois; Baia county — three silver firs on a red field; Cîmpulung (Moldovenese) county — two silver firs with visible roots and a stag's head holding a cross between its antlers; a stag is also one of the elements of the shield of Rădăuți county. The shield of Bihor county shows a sheaf of corn and a bunch of grapes, and moreover, three green firs and three native red-dotted trout.

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<sup>10</sup> *Romania's Encyclopaedia*, II, p. 538.

<sup>11</sup> Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, III, 1, p. 346.

<sup>12</sup> *G.G.D.R.*, vol. V, 1902, p. 179, 754.

<sup>13</sup> Ioan N. Mănescu, *Dimitrie Cantemir's Shields and their Place in the Heraldics of the Romanian Countries*, in "Revista Arhivelor," L, vol. XXXV, No. 3, 1973, p. 5.

<sup>14</sup> Dan Cernovodeanu, Ioan N. Mănescu, *The New Shields of Arms of the Counties and Municipalities of the Socialist Republic of Romania*, Bucharest, 1974, p. 80—81, 85—89, 89—91, 94.

A fir is also one of the charges of the shield of Caraş county, and three firs are seen on the shield of Ciuc county; a raven holding a gold ring in its beak and standing on a leafy oak branch with acorns is seen on the shields of Cluj, Hunedoara and Timiş-Torontal counties; an aurochs' head, front view, with a golden star between its antlers and a chamois on a rock between two firs, are among the charges of the Maramureş shield; an aurochs' head, as a symbol of Moldavia's domination over the Ciceu and Cetatea de Baltă fortified towns, on the shield of the counties of Someş and Tîrnava Mică; a stag is among the charges found on the shield of Satu Mare county. To conclude, an uprooted oak with leafs and acorns is seen on the shield of Turda county.

The departure from the old armorial bearing is more pronounced in the new shields instituted by decree No. 503 of 16 December 1970 and sanctioned by decree No. 302 of 25 July 1972. To begin with, the arms of the Socialist Republic of Romania: the central charge is "wooded mountains under a rising sun." The forest is represented by two rows of firs: in the foreground, nine firs dark-green and behind them, eight firs light-green. The fir, the tree with a Dacian name, is to be found in a number of new county shields. Thus, the shield of Maramureş bears two firs, a decorative motif from an oak gate, an aurochs' head with star, sun and crescent. There are two firs on the shield of Harghita and three on that of Suceava, which also bears the old arms of Moldavia, the stylized auroch's head. Vrancea has seven firs, possibly to recall the seven sons of the legendary Vrîncioaia. The shields of Mureş, Alba, Covasna and Bistriţa-Năsăud also show one fir.

The oak, that splendid tree representative of the counties of the plain and hills also occurs on a number of county shields. It is present on the shield of Ilfov, recalling the extensive forests of yore, and also on the shield of Buzău. Sălaj county has a shield with two oak leaves and an acorn, symbolizing the vast forests in that part of the country, where many herds of swine were fattened in the past. A sketchy representation of an oak by three leaves, two acorns and baren roots is a charge of the shield of Teleorman, reminiscent of the great forests — subsequently cleared — which gave the name of the county. Three oak branches are to be found at the foot of the shield of Bacău. The Gheorghe Gheorghiu-Dej municipality also has a leafy oak branch with an arrow on the lower part of its shield, recalling the legend of the Borzeşti oak. The Ploieşti municipality chose a young oak with visible roots held by two lions facing each other to symbolize its foundation at the time of



Michael the Brave. It is worthy of note that one of the charges on the shield of Sibiu county is a wooden distaff beautifully decorated with various motifs.

Alongside forest trees, the new shields and arms also bear charges representing forest game. The age-old aurochs' head occurs on the shield of Vaslui county and of Alba Iulia municipality, in remembrance of the time when Michael the Brave ruled those districts as Prince of Wallachia, Transylvania and Moldavia. The chamois is a charge on the shield of Prahova county, the stag of Gorj county, and the deer of Dîmbovița county. There is a bear on the shield of Bistrița-Năsăud county.

The afore-mentioned charges — and the list of shields is not exhaustive — show the important place forests and game hold in the new Romanian heraldics.

## THE ROMANIAN WOOD CIVILIZATION

*For more than one thousand years a Romanian wood civilization has been present in all spheres of life.*

The home of the Romanians, not only in the mountainous and hilly districts, but also in the plain, their sheepholds and flour mills, their old churches, their furniture, tools and weapons, their means of conveyance by land and water, a great many customs and also spiritual life, including literary and artistic creation, are all bound up with the forest, being influenced by it and bearing its imprint. One may speak with good reason of a Romanian wood civilization with the specific forms it assumes, just as one can speak of a wood civilization among all the peoples on whose territory forests have been a powerful and constant reality.

From the start we should point out that wood was a major component of the Daco-Getae's civilization. Time has destroyed many of the achievements wrought out of wood, for it is a material that rots and decays. Yet what has come down to us either directly or by the agency of architectural monuments and literary sources suffices to build up a well-defined image. The numberless wood objects found during the excavations at Piatra Craivii and Căpilna — adze, axes, gimlets, knives, including draw knives — bring evidence to woodworking and the place it held in Dacian civilization<sup>1</sup>. Wood was used as building material for the houses of the Dacians — as represented on Trajan's Column and as proved by archeological excavations carried out in the Dacian Sarmizegethusa region and at Popești Novaci on the Argeș. Walls were made of beams, joined at the ends, and roofs were made of shingles. Even in the stone walls of fortifications, thick oak beams are found linking the outside walls, the ends of the beams being dovetailed. This wood and stone assemblage has caused walls and works to be described as *murus dacicus* or *opus dacicum*<sup>2</sup>. To this

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<sup>1</sup> Al. Popa, *Dacian Economic Development Level in the Light of the Finds at Piatra Craivii and Căpilna*, in "Apulum," IX (1971), p. 271—282.

<sup>2</sup> Hadrian Dăncoviciu, *The Dacians*, p. 204—205.

day there are traces of beams in the fortification walls in the mountains of Orăştie, Costeşti and Blidaru. It is significant to note that at a later date the Romanians adopted the same system in building fortifications. Thus, in the Poienari citadel in the Argeş Mountains, the initial dungeon — a tower that is almost square — has thick walls of stone bound with mortar and “consolidated with wooden beams, whose empty places are now visible.”<sup>3</sup> The fences enclosing the courtyards, as shown on Trajan’s Column, were made of pointed boards such as can still be seen in some of the Romanian villages in the mountain districts. Even in the mud huts of the plain, wood was used for the posts and rafters which supported the roof made up of fairly thick branches and of thin trunks of young trees. This house-building system was practised also in the Daco-Roman period as well as during the long Middle Ages. What has been left of the dwellings at Păcuil lui Soare on the Danube island east of Ostrov<sup>4</sup>, where a Byzantine stronghold rose, and also at Garvăn, on another Danube island east of Galaţi, shows plainly that wood was being used<sup>5</sup>. At Păcui a number of woodworking tools were found, namely an axe, a hatchet, an adze and a gimlet. They served to house building as well as to the making of household things and of boats.

Travellers accounts of the later Middle Ages specify that townspeople’s houses were made of wood. The English traveller Henry Cavendish who crossed the eastern part of Wallachia, coming from Silistra, described Buzău, which he reached on 15 July 1589, as a “big town with wooden houses.”<sup>6</sup> The prince’s court in Iaşi is said to be made “only of wood and shingled.”<sup>7</sup> The houses of the Baia townspeople, which Stephen the Great’s soldiers set fire to in the night of 15 December 1467, were also made of wood. And the overwhelming majority of the houses in Bucharest, Iaşi and other towns were likewise made of wood and shingled. For which reason, when a fire broke out, as it did in Bucharest on Easter Day in 1847, it spread very quickly, burning down hundreds of houses. Instead of the stone ramparts found around certain Transylvanian towns, wooden walls were used in Wallachia and Moldavia. They were made up of thick tree trunks stuck close to one another into the ground and joined together by beams secured with wooden nails. The Parisian Lescaopier saw such an enclosure around Bucharest, when he put up in

<sup>3</sup> Gh. I. Cantacuzino, *The Poienari Stronghold*, in S.C.I.V., 22 (1971), 2, p. 272.

<sup>4</sup> Diaconu—Vilceanu, *Păcuil lui Soare*, p. 167—169.

<sup>5</sup> Gh. Ştefan et al, *Dinogetia I*, Bucharest, 1967, p. 30—42.

<sup>6</sup> Paul Cernovodeanu, *The Journey of Henry Cavendish to the Romanian Countries in 1589*, in “Anuarul Xenopol,” VII (1970), p. 274.

<sup>7</sup> *Foreign Travellers*, III, p. 296.



the town in June 1574<sup>8</sup>. The fortification built up by Sinan Pasha around "Radu Vodă" Monastery in 1595 was made of earth and wood<sup>9</sup>, the same as the early medieval citadels. From a medieval source, we learn that Tirgoviște was "made wholly of wood" (*Tirgoviște oppidum ex lignis totum fabricatum*)<sup>10</sup>; which allows of two interpretations: the houses were all made of wood, and the enclosure was of wood also, that is of tree trunks, as in Bucharest.

The component parts of Romanian houses were of wood in both town and country: from the thick oak planks that served as foundations, to the beams that made up the walls, and finally to the roof timbers, shingles and the verandah poles. Even the nails securing the shingles were made of hard yew, for iron was expensive at the time. As late as the 19th century, in some villages of the Vrancea Land<sup>11</sup> and in the Gurghiu Valley shingles were secured with wooden nails. "Chronicon Pictum," which describes the war of 1330 and the Wallachian victory at Posada, mentions the wooden nails used by the Wallachians<sup>12</sup>. The house door and the grated door of the cellar, as well as the gate of the courtyard and the fence, were also of wood. Some oak gates are genuine art monuments, and their rich decoration has occasionally a symbolic significance. To this day in Maramureș cable moulding decoration patterns are used<sup>13</sup> and decorated gates are also found in the village of Săcele. The outhouses — stables, grain barns — were also of wood. Hydrotechnical installations<sup>14</sup>: water mills, cloth-fulling mills with their mallets, nap-raising mills for rugs, were all made of wood. Well castings and pails were also made of wood. A smoothed log or a thick plank often spans a mountain brook. Over more abundant streams or rivers, foot bridges shaped like the arc of a circle, made of wood alone, could be seen during the early decades of this century over the rivers Bîsca Chiojdului, Bîsca Rusilii and Buzău in the Cislău-Pătîrlagele region. Wood was again the only material used for pontoon bridges by means of which bigger rivers were crossed.

The "acme" in wooden constructions was reached in a number of churches in Transylvania and Maramureș, whose slender spires rise skyward. Wooden churches have existed from the early times of

<sup>8</sup> Giurescu, *Bucharest*, p. 130.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 54, 65.

<sup>10</sup> Gh. I. Cantacuzino, *op. cit.*, p. 268.

<sup>11</sup> Hîrnea, *Vrancea*, p. 156.

<sup>12</sup> Giurescu—Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, p. 215.

<sup>13</sup> Paul Petrescu, *Peasant Wood Architecture in Romania*, Bucharest, 1974, 83 p. in 4°.

<sup>14</sup> The wooden axle of a hydraulic wheel preserved from Daco-Roman times is on display at the Bruckenthal Museum, Sibiu.

Daco-Roman Christianity on both sides of the Carpathians, and they continued to be built until the late 18th century. We should mention here that Horea, the fighter for justice, was one of the builders of such churches.

Generally, they were low and small-sized, with all elements, from the oak foundation plank to the roof, made of wood. Yet, there are some which are topped by a tall spire, sometimes measuring dozens of metres in length, which arouse surprise and admiration. Such are the wooden church of Șurăești (Maramureș county) with a spire 57 metres high and representative decoration; the church in Fildul de Sus (Sălaj county); the church of Dragomirești (Maramureș) now at the Village Museum in Bucharest; and the church in the village of Brusturi (Bihar county) dating from 1770. Those tall spires are sometimes decorated with four turrets at their bases, as can be seen at Brusturi church. How could Romanian builders raise those lofty spires, especially their upper part, which seems to defy the law of gravity? They were doubtlessly peerless technicians and, at the same time, born artists with a deep sense of proportions.

Inside the church also, wood holds pride of place. In most cases, the altar screen is of yew or lime. Brick altar screens are extremely rare. Yew, the densest and heaviest wood in Romania, was used for exquisite iconostases of Sucevița and Voroneț. The latter, dating from 1547 was made on orders from Metropolitan Roșca. Lime was used in the fine altar screens of St. Nicholas cathedral of Rădăuți and in Arbore church. The icons that decorate the altar screen are of wood, and so are the icons on the screen doors, often covered with silver. The seat of the ruling prince and of the church dignitary are also of wood, and so are the pews and lecterns. Prince Petru Rareș's seat in Probota church is worthy of note<sup>15</sup>. An old wooden pew dating from the end of the 16th century has been preserved in the church of Bistrița Monastery<sup>16</sup>. Among the most valuable wood carvings that have been preserved are the church doors of Snagov, Cobia and Tazlău Monasteries. The first dates from 1453 — the year of the fall of Constantinople — and was made on orders from Prince Vladislav. The three religious scenes represented on it are arranged vertically in two strips, each strip being surrounded by an inscription in Slavonic — the language of the church and of the chancellery in those days; similar inscriptions are to be found above the six scenes. The door of the Cobia Monastery church dates from 1608. It is a donation from

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<sup>15</sup> Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, II, p. 671.

<sup>16</sup> Șt. Pascu, *Handicrafts in Transylvania up to the 16th Century*, Bucharest, 1954, Fig. 17.

High Steward Badea, remarkable for the elegant floral motifs that decorate it<sup>17</sup>. The door of the church of Tazlău Monastery is of yew. It was made by one Cozma and was completed on March 30, 1596, having been ordered and paid for by "Minei, the monk." It is an outstanding work of art; most of its surface is covered with a dainty, stylized stem with leaves and blossoms. In the middle, within a frame of smooth wood, there is a different motif in the flamboyant Gothic style, with beautifully interwoven tapering leaves. Above this central motif we see Moldavia's arms<sup>18</sup>. In cemeteries, the crosses are of wood, and in many places — in the Orăștie, Hunedoara, Sibiu, Gorj and Vrancea areas — wooden posts can still be seen at the head of the graves. There is an age-old tradition behind those posts, which sometimes bear a notched decoration or are topped by a bird with wings outspread, "the soul bird".<sup>19</sup>

Whoever saw a peasant's house during the long medieval period could ascertain that most of the furniture was made of wood: the bed was usually made up of boards on two trestles. In the guests' room it was covered with rugs and carpets beautifully piled up, being the most outstanding piece of furniture in the house. The low round table resting on short legs secured to the edge or the middle of the table; the low stools, the benches along the walls that also did duty for sleeping accommodation; the hope chest, the dresser where the dishes and platters were set forth; the corner shelves, the distaff and the spindle; the cradle where the baby was rocked, and which sometimes had ropes attached to its four corners to allow for its being tied to the ceiling beam so that it may swing of its own accord, not very high above the ground; the weaving loom, the reeling device, and the bar which served to lock the door when placed crosswise were all made of wood. Some of the utensils used in the preparation of foodstuffs were likewise made of wood. Thus, the pot hanger, the stirring pin with which the corn mush was stirred, the platter on which it was overturned, the small trough where the bread dough was prepared out of flour and water, the caddy where salt was kept, the churn where butter was made, the ladle as well as the spoons, were again of wood. At Cîmpulung Moldovenesc there is an impressive collection which belongs to teacher Ioan Țugui, amounting to some 4,500 spoons of every description. Made of sycamore maple, lime, mulberry or yew, some plain and some beautifully decorated, they

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<sup>17</sup> Giurescu, *History of the Romanians*, III, p. 1021.

<sup>18</sup> Giurescu, *op. cit.*, II, p. 673.

<sup>19</sup> Cornel Irimie, Nicolae Ungureanu, *Rumänische Holzschnitzkunst*, [no place], 1973, p. 15.



stand proof to the artistic propensities of the craftsmen who made them. In a corner, at the entrance or in the room itself, stood the staff made of cornel wood; sometimes the coffin was to be found up in the garret. It is significant to note that a number of ornaments on the wooden objects in a peasant's cottage are also to be found in the decoration of prehistoric pottery excavated on the Carpatho-Danubian territory, providing one more proof of the continuity of the autochthonous population: Dacians, Daco-Romans, Romanians. If the cottage was in a wine district, there was a wine cellar made of wooden beams, and in the wine cellar a vat, also of wood, and only exceptionally of stone, and a winepress, of wood again, even when it had a screw, which was made of hardwood and also a smaller vat into which the must flows; formerly for that vat a term of Latin origin was used: *coreta*; then the funnel and finally the oaks, butts, hogsheads and vats, were all of wood, often with wooden hoops as well. At Tismana Monastery there was in the 17th century a huge butt of 30,000 l.; it was made of yew<sup>20</sup> and could easily vie with the butt in the Heidelberg palace. When distillation was introduced, with the making of plum brandy and wine spirits, special vats were made for the fermentation of plums and grapes, and also kegs, big and small, made of mulberry wood and also of oak, where the distillates were kept for the purpose of aging. At vintage time there were special pails for the picked grapes, and tubs in which the grapes turned into must. There was also a contrivance made up of branches of fir or other varieties of wood with the twigs at the top cut short to form something like a crown. It was used to crush the grapes before they were taken to the wine press. Finally, there were poles shouldered by two men to carry the two-handled buckets. In spring, a wooden pole was used to drive in the wine props; it was pointed at one end, with a short lateral arm to press the pole down with the foot. To conclude, we should mention the grate of interwoven branches where plums were spread in autumn in order to scald them, or to dry them in the oven.

Since in water mills, wind mills and horse-driven mills, everything was of wood except for the stones that ground the grain, documents speak of the "mill timber". Thus on 16 December 1628 Prince Alexandru Iliăş ordered Moise of the village of Cornăţel to remove the "mill timber" from the estate of Viforita Monastery at Vărăşti, or else the abbess had leave "to break up the mill."<sup>21</sup>

The other wooden tools used in agriculture, animal husbandry, bee-keeping, fishing, mining and transport also made up a compre-

<sup>20</sup> Ştefulescu, *Tismana*, p. 114.

<sup>21</sup> *D.R.H.*, B, vol. XXII, p. 379.

hensive assortment. Wooden ploughs were used for long; harrows in the old days consisted of thistle branches over which boulders were placed to increase their weight. In gleaning and hay-making, rakes were used while pitchforks served to build up haycocks and haystacks, and in mountainous or very uneven districts two-wheeled stretchers were employed to carry the hay home, with spikes along the sides to prevent the hay from falling. All the above implements were of wood. In a bee-garden the hives were made of segments of lime-trees or other trunks, hollowed out in the middle and with a hole at their lower part to allow the bees in and out. Honey was kept in small wooden barrels with closely knit staves. In a sheepfold most things were made of wood: the pen made up of axe-hewn boards, where the sheep were confined; and also the long-handled hook that went round a sheep's leg to arrest it; the shed of interwoven twigs where cheese was kept — in skins or vats — as also butter and wool; and then, also the pails into which the sheep were milked, and the vessels and tools used in the making of cheese of every kind. Boats were made of wood — dugouts at first, mere tree trunks hollowed out, and later more elaborate wooden boats — as were also the oars and the helm, and the bail by means of which the rain water or the water that had got into the boat through the chink or a hole, was bailed out. Of wood were also the bigger boats that served to make stationary pontoon bridges, flying bridges and the mills on the more important rivers. And the very big boats — launches and sailing ships that sailed on the Danube and the Black Sea<sup>22</sup> — were of wood, too, as were the rafts made up of logs or of different kinds of sawn timber tied together by lime bark ropes and wooden pins. Waggon and carts, in their primitive form, were made exclusively of wood, without any iron wheel bands or nails. Wheels, centre board, sides, axles, yoke, cross piece, even the container where crude oil was kept to oil the axles with, were made of wood. The same holds good for sledges, which were used for winter transport. The road planks should not be overlooked either. They were of oak and very long. The main roads of the more important towns were paved with them, and as they wore out quickly because of the traffic, they had to be replaced at comparatively short intervals. This accounts for the felling of oak forests, at first around the towns and later in the more distant areas of the plain and of the hills.

As regards weapons, the spear should be mentioned, called “fuști” in old Romanian — from the Latin *fustis* — which had no

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<sup>22</sup> Giurescu, *Contributions*, the relevant chapter.

iron head to begin with; then the bow and arrow, without iron or tinder tip at first; the shield, which was round or square, and the club, made of hard cornel or oak wood, which was either plain or studded with thick nails. We should add the flail, made up of two long pieces of wood bound together, which served to thresh grain, beans and peas, but could also be a weapon to be feared, just as scythes were with which the horses' legs could be cut and sometimes also the heads of one's enemies; then also the long-handled axe. The whip whose handle was of hard cornel wood was used for reprisals rather than for fighting. Even in mines, a number of tools and installations were of wood; thus, the stampheads with their big, thick mallets that crushed gold-bearing ore, being moved by the power of water. At the bottom of a well 8—10 metres deep in the salt massif of the Valea Florilor (between Cluj and Cimpia Turzii), a genuine store of Dacian salt-mining tools has recently been found, all made of wood, mostly hornbeam<sup>23</sup>. Charcoal should moreover be mentioned, which has been made on both sides of the Carpathians from Dacian times to date by smouldering, incomplete burning of wood in piles. In the mining sector, we should add the early tubs, made of wood, and moving along on wooden rails, as used in the Brad gold mines of the Apuseni mountains in the 14th century; they were the predecessors of the metal tubs of modern mines<sup>24</sup>.

Shops in the market town were of wood, too: walls, shelves, and the stand in front of the shop. For this reason people spoke of the "timber" of the shop just as they spoke of the "mill timbers". On 10 June 1628, Prince Alexandru Iliăş confirmed the title of Reverend Dumitru and of his wife to a plot of ground for four shops in Bucharest. The monks of St. Trinity Monastery (later "Radu Vodă") who had already made some shops there had to "remove their timber from that plot"<sup>25</sup>.

In reckoning, the tally stick held an important place; it was an ingenious and very simple instrument made up of two unequal pieces of wood — usually a hazel branch split lengthwise — on which notches were cut to show the dues of a party, the smaller part being taken by the creditor and the bigger part being left with the debtor. Tally sticks were used in the village sheepfold to mark the number of milk pails, and consequently the quantity of cheese those who had brought their sheep to the fold were entitled to; and they were also used at fulling and nap-raising mills as an acknowledgement of the

<sup>23</sup> Ion Al. Maxim, *A Store of Dacian Salt-mining Tools*, in A.M.N., VIII (1971), p. 457—463.

<sup>24</sup> Moroianu—Ştefan, *The Living Fire*, p. 97.

<sup>25</sup> D.R.H., B, vol. XXII, p. 224—225.



material brought by the customer, and in any work and enterprise in which several participants were concerned, payment of taxes as well as in transport, etc. At one end, the tally stick had a hole bored into it, so that all the tally sticks could be threaded on a string<sup>26</sup>.

Folk musical instruments, too, were made of wood, wholly or in part. To begin with, the flutes — single or twin flutes, the long shepherd's pipes, the pan pipes and the alpen horns, then also the violins, kobsas and cymballos, whose soundbox is made of wood. To which we would add an "instrument" typical of the Carpatho-Danubian area: the leaf of the beech or of the wild pear.

Wood is furthermore used in the form of handle for a number of iron implements such as sickles, scythes, axes, and augers, the latter being employed in boring holes into the felly in order to fix the wheel spokes.

We should once again point out that long experience taught our forebears what variety of timber was best suited for each part of a structure, a tool or implement, for a piece of furniture, a weapon, a vessel or a musical instrument. Durmast oak was preferred for house foundation planks, for gates and for wine containers. Mulberry wood, which imparts an attractive golden colour to drinks, was the best material for containers that were to hold plum- and other kinds of brandy. Wheel fellies were of beech, as were also corn-mush platters, the boards on which food was prepared, and the shingles. For troughs of all kinds, kneading troughs included, and for bowls, light wood such as poplar and willow was the best for it was easily hollowed out. Out of lime wood altar screens were made, as well as bee-hives, glasses and spoons. Lime tree bark served to tie the vine and to make measuring ropes, for which reason in certain parts of Oltenia the part of an estate which had been thus measured and had been allocated to a group or a family of freeholders was also called *teiu*. The petition of 8 May 1818, whereby the freeholders of Cloșani insistently demanded that Tudor Vladimirescu be appointed their land surveyor, is signed among others by "Ion Franțescu with all my fellows on Teiul Fisesc, Cloșani and Mehedinți."<sup>27</sup> Out of deal, pails were made, big and small, as well as firkins for cheese and honey, churns and buckets, and moreover, all kinds of sawn timber for houses, ships' masts and shingles. Cornel wood made peerless material for clubs, staffs and whip hands; bungs were also made out of cornel wood and furthermore, nails with the fellies cut lengthwise out of the log were

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<sup>26</sup> P. N. Panaitescu, *Tally Sticks. A Study of Economic and Social History with the Romanians*, Bucharest, 1946, 278 p. in 8; G. Focșa, *The Oaș Land*, Bucharest, 1975, p. 124—141.

<sup>27</sup> Drîmbă, *Tudor Vladimirescu*, p. 584.

strengthened for the waggons that carried salt from Slănic to the Danube. Yew was used for all kinds of small containers and for altar screens. Out of birch, hoops were made for fermentation vats. Ash, sycamore, wild pear and walnut yield the best wood for fine furniture; sycamore and spruce for violins and kobzas, while alpenhorns use sycamore, ash, fir and hazel wood, as well as cherry, birch and lime bark. It is out of hornbeam that mill paddles and rake prongs are made. Gallows were also usually made of hornbeam, which is strong and resilient. A person sentenced to be hanged was described as one "wedded to the hornbeam." It would be tiresome to list the variety of wood used by preference for each thing. Suffice it to say in conclusion that the differentiation made is once again proof of the close contact of our forebears with the complex realities of the forest world and moreover, proof of their spirit of observation.



But the contact with the forest world is not manifest in the material, utilitarian sector of life alone; it extends to spiritual life as well. Why has the fir been associated to the fundamental events of life: marriage, the building of a house, and death? Why has not a flower, an ear of corn or another symbol been chosen? Because fir is the typical mountain tree and, according to an ancient chronicler, the Dacians considered themselves closely linked to the mountain. The fir raises its stately frame skyward; it is the symbol of symmetry and of perfection in shape, and at the same time, it is the symbol of duration for its leaves are ever green. Small wonder, therefore, that our ancestors should have associated it, as a symbol of continuance, of duration with marriage, the building of a home, and even with death, the underlying idea being that life continues even after death, in the realm of Zalmoxis, the Dacians' god. Nor is it to be wondered at that the Dacian name of this forest tree should have been preserved in our language, together with other terms bound up with the forest world.

Fir-trees were moreover associated with other circumstances of life. New-born babies were dedicated to a fir-tree for protection, that they might be shielded from evil. The dedication took place in public, in the presence of the parents and relatives<sup>28</sup> and the tree was asked to protect the child "as long as it lives." Another custom was the bathing of the baby in a "fir needle" bath<sup>29</sup>. When the time has come for a young man to choose a bride, he takes council with a fir-tree.

<sup>28</sup> Romulus Vulcănescu, *The Sky Column*, Bucharest, 1972, p. 54—55.

<sup>29</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 55—56.

The poem *The Fir* by George Coşbuc<sup>30</sup> is undoubtedly based on a practice current in the Năsăud area where the poet was born. Why should we then be surprised to find that when felling a fir people of Maramureş and of Bucovina ask its forgiveness? For those people, forest trees are as close to man as living beings.

The age-old cradle dance and song which have been preserved — in Maramureş again — are truly impressive; young mothers holding the baby's wooden cradle against their hearts move rhythmically, singing a touching lullaby that has come down to them from ancestors that lived thousands of years ago.

We should also mention the festivals and entertainments that are bound up with forest life. In the "Cherry Glade", not far from Coteşti hermitage (Vrancea county), "the lime-tree festival" was held every year — and it is to be desired that the custom should be kept in future also — the people of Coteşti and of the neighbouring villages gathering in the glade to feast till far into the night<sup>31</sup>. Furthermore, at Padeş (Mehedinţi county), where there are lilac woods, the lilac festival is held in May.

But forests may also be evil at times: they may kill, when trees fall over the woodcutters; they may set people's houses ablaze when lighting sets fire to its trees; they may in a few years reconquer the clearings made at great pains; and finally, they may set the wild beasts they shelter — wolves and bears — against the cattle; and wolves, when famished, may even attack men. In the Romanian folk tales the nasty hag that goes awailing in the forest personifies the terrifying aspects of the forest. She may also be a recollection of age-old myths, when trees, streams and mountains all had their deities<sup>32</sup>.



A life lived in close touch with the forest has naturally brought its influence to bear on the literary creation of the Romanian people, folklore included.

Folk poems often begin with an invocation to the forest or to its foliage: "green leaf" has become part and parcel of Romanian folk poetry. Ballads of outlawry always highly praise the forest, which has befriended the outlaw and sheltered him. The forest is present also in the most outstanding Romanian folk poem "Mioriţa" (The Ewe-lamb). The Moldavian shepherd relates his symbolic wedding to death, with "fir-trees and sycamores/wedding guests by scores."

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<sup>30</sup> G. Coşbuc, *Poems*, Bucharest, 1971, p. 147–148.

<sup>31</sup> Ilie Dumitrescu, *History of the Village*, in *Coteşti*, p. 29.

<sup>32</sup> Lucian Blaga, *The Trilogy of Culture*, Bucharest, 1935, p. 254.



He asks that on his grave be laid "one small pipe of beech / with its soft sweet speech / one of elder wood / fiery-tongued and good..."

Forests are not forgotten in proverbs either. The saying "The forest and the Romanian are brothers" is justified by age-old experience. People say that "the forest is half a home" or "oak springs from oak" and they use to compare strong men to the "green oak."

It is quite natural that forest should be ever present in the poems of the greatest Romanian poet, Mihai Eminescu.<sup>33</sup>

Aware of the part the forest played in Romania's history, he makes it say, in "Prince Muşat and the Woods": "Beloved brother, I'm no forest, but a stronghold."

In "Epistle III", Prince Mircea's battle with Bayazid at Rome is backed by "oaks in forest dense" and the Romanian prince warns the Sultan that "all that grows and moves and breathes to me is ally true."

The forest always sympathises with the lovers:

"Come to the forest spring where wavelets / Trembling o'er the pebbles glide / And the drooping willow branches / Its secluded threshold hide... Midst that harmony thus sleeping / Woodland tales our thoughts enthrall / And upon our bodies softly / Do the lime-tree petals fall."

(From "Longing")

In Eminescu's love poems we shall often find the lime, that admirable tree of our forests, with sweet-scented, heavy blossoms.

"Bends the lime with gentle care / Her sweet body to embower ; / In the breeze his branches singing / Lift her in their arms upswinging / While a hundred blossoms shower / On her hair."

(From "The Murmur of the Forest")

Eminescu's masterful evocation of the forest is unparalleled:

"Why do you wail, o forest trees / Forest, without rain or breeze, / Your branches ill at ease ? / How indeed should I not wail / When the hours of summer fail ! / Nights grow longer, days get short, / On my branches few leaves caught, / And the winds with bitter sword / Drive my choristers abrad ; / Autumn winds that forests flay / Winter near, spring far away."

(From "Why do you wail, o forest trees ?")

or

"If through the copper woods you pass, the silver woods shine far away / There you will hear a thousand throats proclaim the forest's

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<sup>33</sup> For a fine English version of Eminescu's *Poems*, see the translation by Corneliu M. Popescu published in 1978 by Editura Eminescu.

roundelay / The grass beside the bubbling spring shine like snow in  
sunlight fair / And blue flowers drenched in moisture rise and tremble  
in the perfumed air. / It seems the tall and ancient trees have souls  
beneath their barks concealed / Souls that oft amid their boughs by  
singing voices are revealed, / While down the hidden forest glades,  
beneath the twilight's silver haze, / One sees the rapid brooklets  
leap along their shining pebbly ways.

(From "Călin")

Last but not least, when his thoughts dwell on the road whence  
there is no return he writes :

"One wish alone have I / In some calm land / Beside the sea  
to die; Upon its strand / That I forever sleep / The forest near / A  
heaven clear / Stretched o'er the peaceful deep ! / No candles shine, /  
Nor tomb I need, instead / Let them for me a bed / Of twigs entwine.

"That no one weeps my end, / Nor for me grieves, / But let  
the autumn lend / Tongues to the leaves, / When brooklets ripples  
fall / With murmuring sound, / And moon is found / Among the pine-  
trees tall, / While softly rings / The wind its trembling chime / And  
over me the lime / Its blossom flings.

"As I will then no more / A wanderer be, / Let them with fond-  
ness store / My memory. / And Lucifer the while, / Above the pine,  
Good comrade mine, / Will on me gently smile; / In mournful mood, /  
The sea sing sad refrain... / And I be earth again / In solitude."

(From "One wish alone have I")

Unquestionably, of all our poets Eminescu has understood the  
forest best, has loved it most and has sung it in the most exquisite  
strains.

We should also mention Mihail Sadoveanu's description of  
forests in the north of Moldavia, along the Bistrița, the Moldova and  
the Siret Valley or in the Frumoasa Valley of Transylvania, which  
have no peer in Romanian prose.

Speaking of large-scale deforestation, writer Camil Petrescu  
used to say that it amounted "to crippling the very soul of our people."

We may state that there is hardly an outstanding writer who  
has not evoked the beauty of forests, their variety and stateliness.

From Calistrat Hogaș, who looked for peerless beauty spots  
throughout the woods of Neamț, to Ionel Pop for whom the forests of  
Transylvania hold no secrets; from Vlahuță with his *Picturesque  
Romania* to Rosetti-Bălănescu and Traian Ulea, with their hunting  
recollections; from Liviu Rebreanu and Ion Agârbiceanu who made  
masterly descriptions of Transylvania's woodland to Bucura Dumbravă,  
who described the life of an outlaw in Wallachia's green woods; from  
Nicu Gane, who tells of the hunter who chased the bear in its lair,

to Gheorghe Topîrceanu, the inseparable companion of Mihail Sadoveanu in Moldova's forests, they all devoted remarkable pages to forests as things of beauty and dispensers of joy.

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Art has also been deeply influenced by the existence of forests. The artistic propensities of the Romanian people have always favoured wood, that noble easily modelled material as proved by the profuse decorations in both buildings and implements<sup>34</sup>.

Artistic achievements in wood carving are to be mentioned in our century as well. Brancusi's first versions of the "Endless Column" were made of wood. The Tirgu Jiu column itself, dedicated to people fallen in the war for the unification of all Romanian-inhabited provinces, is a final synthesis of the "funerary posts" and "sky columns" which have come down to us from the dark Neolithic ages<sup>35</sup>.

Sculptor Ion Vlasu and Vida Gheza began as wood carvers. The latter's monument to the memory of the Maramureş patriots fallen at Moisei in the autumn of 1944 was first carved in wood and only afterwards in travertine.

Artistically made wainscotting adds a touch of sober elegance to a home, and carved wooden ceilings are sumptuous. The Trade Union Cultural Club at Baia Mare is a good example of what can be obtained by judicious use of wood as a decorative element, and certain furniture suites made of walnut, ash and sycamore may be considered as genuine artistic achievements. The Romanian Woodwork Exhibition staged by the Bruckenthal Museum of Sibiu at Stuttgart<sup>36</sup>, the Timber Museum at Cîmpulung Moldovenesc and the wood departments in the ethnographic museums throughout the country<sup>37</sup>, show the beauty and variety of the things made out of the wood of forests.

Forests have also made their impact on the country's painters, as proved by Ion Andreescu's *Leafless Wood* and *Beech Forest* (on show at the Paris Salon in May 1880)<sup>38</sup>, Ştefan Popescu's *Predeal* and Traian Bîlţiu-Dăncuş's *Peasants of Maramureş*, to quote only some of the numerous paintings influenced by woods.

All these stand proof to the existence of a Romanian wood civilization, which has exerted its influence in all spheres of life.

<sup>34</sup> Al. Tzîgara-Samurçaş, *L'art paysan en Roumanie*, Bucharest, 1931, p. 23.

<sup>35</sup> Romulus Vulcănescu, *op. cit.*, p. 77—85 and 115—118.

<sup>36</sup> Cornel Irimie, Nicolae Ungureanu, *op. cit.*

<sup>37</sup> We have in mind the Village Museum in Bucharest, the Ethnographic Museums of Iaşi, Cluj-Napoca, Sighet, Suceava, Rădăuţi, Gura Humorului and Orăştie, the Criş Land Museum of Oradea, the Oltenia Museum of Cralova, the History and Ethnography Museum of Focşani, the Orchard and Vineyard Museum of Goleşti, the Bran Museum and the Oaş Land Museum at Negreşti.

<sup>38</sup> Radu Bogdan, *Ion Andreescu*, Bucharest, 1969, p. 125—128.



## PROSPECTS

What are the prospects of Romanian forests? How will they develop? What conditions should be fulfilled if forests are to be not only preserved, but also improved so that they may become an ever more productive element of the Romanian economy?

The first and essential condition is that annual fellings should never, on any account, exceed the annual growth capacity of forests. The new forests law definitely forbids under the most severe sanctions that the growth rate be exceeded, no exception being admitted whatever the reason put forward.

The second condition is to reforest all cleared pieces of land, as well as degraded land that has become non-productive, because it has not been retimbered in time. Furthermore, protective belts should be re-planted in the Bărăgan plain and wherever they have been done away with. As to the varieties of timber chosen for afforestation, not only the autochthonous, the traditional varieties should be considered — spruce, fir, oak, beech, hornbeam, ash, sycamore, walnut — or those that have become traditional — acacia — but also the new, fast-growing varieties which have been experimented upon and have been proved adaptable to our soil and climate. We have in mind American red oak, Canadian poplar, (American) Douglas fir, Strob pine, a most valuable forest tree, black walnut and other varieties. As regards the use made of timber, the method adopted during the last decades after 1948, should obviously be continued and developed. Exports should mainly consist of *fabricates*, such as paper, furniture, matches, barrels, etc., very little raw material such as sawn timber, and semi-fabricates such as wood pulp, going abroad. Again there should be here a *proviso*: factories should be designed — as to number and production capacities — in accordance with the annual growth rate of forests and the felling rate should never be determined by the number of factories. Of course, things are different if surplus

factories are supplied with imported timber, but this means expensive raw material paid for in foreign currency.

Furthermore, fuelwood should to an increasing extent be superseded by coal and other fuels and ultimately, the use of wood as fuel should be altogether discarded for this is primitive and wasteful management. Wood is too valuable and too noble a material to be burnt away.

We should get used to the idea that centuries ago this was a rich country in forests, but that at present it is no longer so and that what is left should be preserved with the greatest care. At the nationwide conference of silviculturists in October 1974, President Nicolae Ceaușescu said : "The activities of forestry bodies, of all workers in that sector, should be centred on all the measures required for the conservancy, protection and development of the forest fund, for the reforestation of the whole forest area to the last square metre, for the rational and economic use of that area." This is compact and precise formulation of the adopted programme, carried out unswervingly, no exception being ever made. Because forests are to us not only a great source of wealth and of good health ; they are part of our very being, a constitutive element of the very notion of Romanian.

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\* Name related to forests.

<sup>a</sup> Throughout 'author' stands for 'author cited in the present work'.



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